REPORT .

OF THE

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FORTIETH MEETING OF THE CONVENTION

OF

AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

OREGON SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF SALEM, OREG.

CONVENTION THEME
"Setting Our Sights for the Sixties"



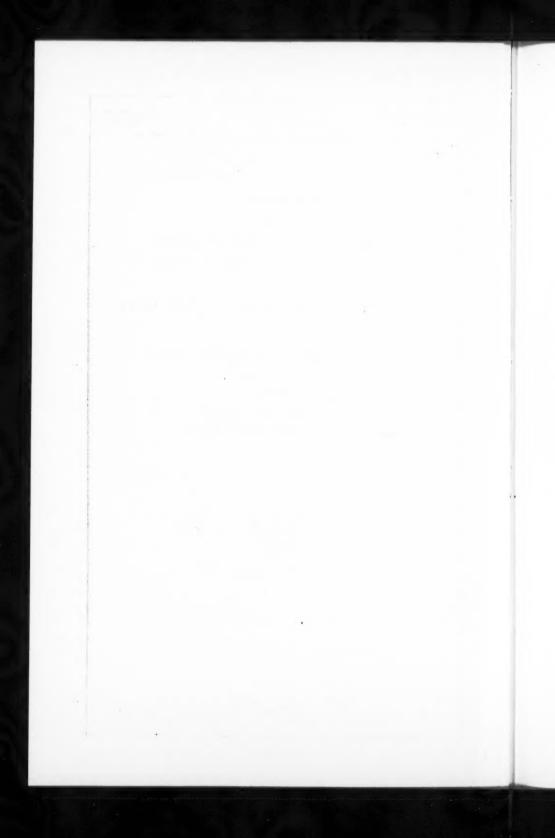
JUNE 25-30, 1961

SEPTEMBER 8, 1961.—Referred to the Committee on Rules and Administration

U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

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WASHINGTON: 1962



S. Con. Res. 40

Agreed to September 19, 1961

Eighty-seventh Congress of the United States of America at the first session

Begun and held at the city of Washington on Tuesday, the third day of January, one thousand nine hundred and sixty-one

CONCURRENT RESOLUTION

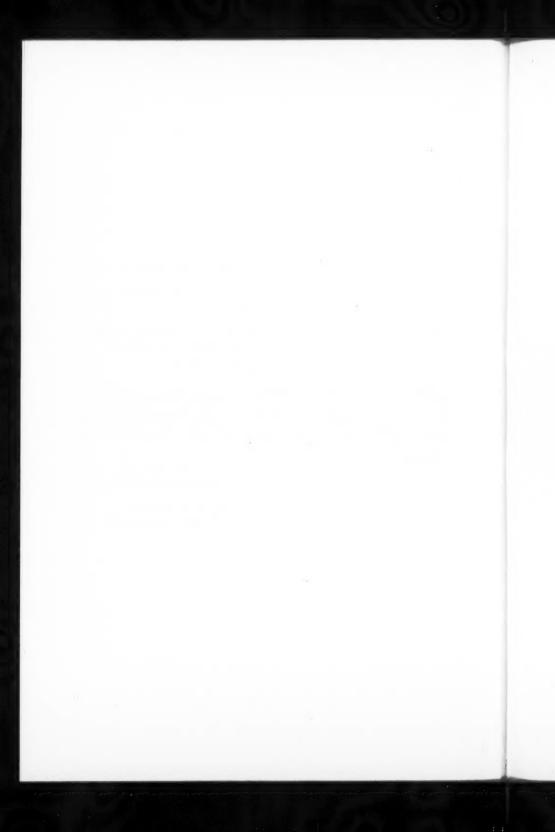
Resolved by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring), That the report of the proceedings of the fortieth biennial meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, held in Salem, Oregon, in June 1961, be printed with illustrations as a Senate document; and that four thousand additional copies be printed for the use of the Joint Committee on Printing.

Attest:

FELTON M. JOHNSTON, Secretary of the Senate.

Attest:

RALPH R. ROBERTS,
Clerk of the House of Representatives.



LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C., September 7, 1961.

Hon. Lyndon B. Johnson, President of the Senate. Hon. Sam Rayburn, Speaker of the House.

To the Congress of the United States:

In accordance with the act of incorporation of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, approved January 26, 1897, I have the honor to submit the proceedings of the 40th meeting of the convention, held at the Oregon School for the Deaf, Salem, Oreg., June 25–30, 1961, inclusive.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant.

Leonard M. Elstad, President.

LETTER OF SUBMITTAL

THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF, September 1, 1961.

Dr. LEONARD M. ELSTAD, President, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.

Dear Sir: In accordance with section 4 of the act of incorporation of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, approved January 26, 1897, a report is to be made to Congress, through the president of Gallaudet College at Washington, D.C., of "such portions of its proceedings and transactions as its officers shall deem to be of general public interest and value concerning the education of the deaf."

In agreement with the above request, I have the honor to submit

In agreement with the above request, I have the honor to submit herewith a comprehensive report containing such papers and addresses as may be of special interest or of historic value, all of which were presented at the 40th meeting, held at the Oregon School for the Deaf, Salem, Oreg., June 25–30, 1961, inclusive.

May I respectfully request that this report be laid before Congress.

Very truly yours,

John F. Grace, Secretary, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

FOREWORD

The published convention proceedings of the American Instructors of the Deaf dating from the time the organization was founded in 1850 contain an almost complete history of the development and progress of education of the deaf in America. The proceedings of the 40th convention held at the Oregon State School for the Deaf in Salem, June 25–30, 1961, adds another chapter of interest to educators of the deaf and to their associates in allied fields of education and science. The addresses, papers, panel discussions, and other material herein presented should prove of great value to all interested in the education and the welfare of the deaf.

In previous years the convention proceedings have been printed as a Senate document. The proceedings of the 40th meeting have for the first time been approved by both the House and the Senate in a concurrent resolution which authorizes the printing of additional copies for distribution to colleges, universities, audiology centers, libraries, and to other organizations and individuals interested in this branch

of education.

The report includes everything of value which can be reproduced in written form. The proceedings of the business meetings and general sessions were carefully recorded, papers and summaries were secured from sectional meetings and from workshops and have been assembled insofar as possible in chronological order.

The report of the meeting of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf held on Wednesday, June 28, is included as a part of the week's deliberations dealing with the education of the

doof

The editor wishes to express his thanks and appreciation to the following people who assisted in the preparation of this volume:

To Dr. Richard G. Brill, the immediate past president of the American Instructors of the Deaf, and to Mr. Roy Moore Stelle, his successor, for their suggestions and approval of various arrangements made by the editor.

To Superintendent Marvin B. Clatterbuck and Mr. Thomas Ulmer of the Oregon School for the Deaf for their assistance in collecting and organizing the papers presented at various meetings during the

convention and for the provision of an "editorial room."

To Mr. Albert B. Davis, stenotypist, of Jefferson City, Mo., for his efficient attention to all details, for the careful and speedy manner in which he prepared all records of the convention for submission to Congress and for his excellent suggestions regarding the organization and presentation of the material.

To Mr. Thomas Dillon, treasurer of the convention, for his list of members as it appears in the early pages of this report, and for his preparation of the mailing list used in the distribution of the proceedings.

To Mrs. Martha Adkins and Mrs. Eleanor Spurling of the Indiana School for the Deaf and to my mother, Mrs. Truman L. Ingle, for their assistance in the reading and preparation of proof and assistance in preparing the index.

To Mr. William H. Wannall of the Office of the Secretary of the Senate for his never failing patience, consideration, and advice, not only during the correction of proof, the indexing, the printing and the binding of these proceedings, but for the same generous assistance since 1951 when the present editor took over these responsibilities.

Respectfully submitted.

WILLIAM J. McClure, Editor.

ACT OF INCORPORATION

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That Edward M. Gallaudet, of Washington, in the District of Columbia; Francis D. Clarke, of Flint, in the State of Michigan; S. Tefft Walker, of Jacksonville, in the State of Illnois; James L. Smith, of Faribault, in the State of Minnesota; Sarah Fuller, of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts; David C. Dudley, of Colorado Springs, in the State of Colorado; and John R. Dobyns, of Jackson, in the State of Mississippi, officers and members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and their associates and successors, be, and they are hereby, incorporated and made a body politic and corporate in the District of Columbia, by the name of the "Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf," for the promotion of the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced, and practical lines, and by that name it may sue, plead, and be impleaded, in any court of law or equity, and may use and have a common seal and change the same at pleasure.

Sec. 2. That the said corporation shall have the power to take and hold personal estate and such real estate as shall be necessary and proper for the promotion of the educational and benevolent purposes of said corporation, which shall not be divided among the members of the corporation, but shall descend

to their successors for the promotion of the objects aforesaid.

Sec. 3. That said corporation shall have a constitution and regulations or bylaws and shall have the power to amend the same at pleasure: *Provided*, That such constitution and regulations or bylaws do not conflict with the laws

of the United States or of any State.

Sec. 4. That said association may hold its meetings in such places as said incorporators shall determine and shall report to Congress, through the President of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Washington, District of Columbia, such portions of its proceedings and transactions as its officers shall deem to be of general public interest and value concerning the education of the deaf.

Approved, January 26, 1897.

MEETINGS OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

First-New York, N.Y., August 28-30, 1850. Second—Hartford, Conn., August 27-29, 1851. Third-Columbus, Ohio, August 10-12, 1853. Fourth-Staunton, Va., August 13-15, 1856. Fifth—Jacksonville, III., August 10–12, 1958. Sixth—Washington, D.C., May 12–16, 1868. (Also called the "First Conference of Superintendents and Principals of the American Schools for the Deaf.") Seventh—Indianapolis, Ind., August 24-26, 1870. Eighth—Belleville, Ontario, July 15-20, 1874. Ninth-Columbus, Ohio, August 17-22, 1878. Tenth-Jacksonville, Ill., August 26-30, 1882. Eleventh—Berkeley, Calif., July 15–23, 1886. Twelfth—New York, N.Y., August 23–27, 1890. Thirteenth-Chicago, Ill., July 17, 19, 21, 24, 1893. Fourteenth—Chicago, III., July 2–8, 1895.
Fifteenth—Columbus, Ohio, July 28-August 2, 1898.
Sixteenth—Buffalo, N.Y., July 2–8, 1901.
Seventeenth—Morganton, N.C., July 8–13, 1905. Eighteenth-Ogden, Utah, July 4-10, 1908. Nineteenth-Delavan, Wis., July 6-13, 1911. Twentieth-Staunton, Va., June 25-July 3, 1914. Twenty-first—Hartford, Conn., June 29—July 3, 1917. Twenty-second—Mount Airy, Pa., June 28—July 3, 1920. Twenty-third-Belleville, Ontario, June 25-30, 1923. Twenty-fourth—Council Bluffs, Iowa, June 29-July 4, 1925. Twenty-fifth-Columbus, Ohio, June 27-July 1, 1927. Twenty-sixth-Faribault, Minn., June 17-21, 1929. Twenty-seventh-Winnipeg, Manitoba, June 22-26, 1931. Twenty-eighth-West Trenton, N.J., June 18-23, 1933. Twenty-ninth—Jacksonville, Ill., June 17-21, 1935. Thirtieth-New York, N.Y., June 20-25, 1937. Thirty-first—Berkeley, Calif., June 18–23, 1939. Thirty-second—Fulton, Mo., June 23–27, 1941. Thirty-third—St. Augustine, Fla., June 16–20, 1947. Thirty-fourth—Jacksonville, Ill., June 19–24, 1949. Thirty-fifth—Fulton, Mo., June 17–22, 1951. Thirty-sixth—Vancouver, Wash., June 28–July 3, 1953. Thirty-seventh—West Hartford, Conn., June 26-July 1, 1955. Thirty-eighth-Knoxville, Tenn., June 23-28, 1957. Thirty-ninth—Colorado Springs, Celo., June 28-July 3, 1959 Fortieth-Salem, Oreg., June 25-30, 1961.

LIST OF PRESIDENTS

- 1. Christopher Morgan, New York.
- 2. Thomas Day, Connecticut.
- John W. Andrews, Ohio.
 James H. Skinner, Virginia.
- 5. Rev. J. M. Sturtevant, Illinois.
- 6. Harvey P. Peet, New York.
- 7. Rev. Collins Stone, Connecticut.
- 8. W. W. Turner, Connecticut.
- 9. Rev. Dr. A. L. Chapin, Wisconsin.
- 10. Edward Miner Gallaudet, District of Columbia.
- 11. Philip G. Gillett, Illinois.

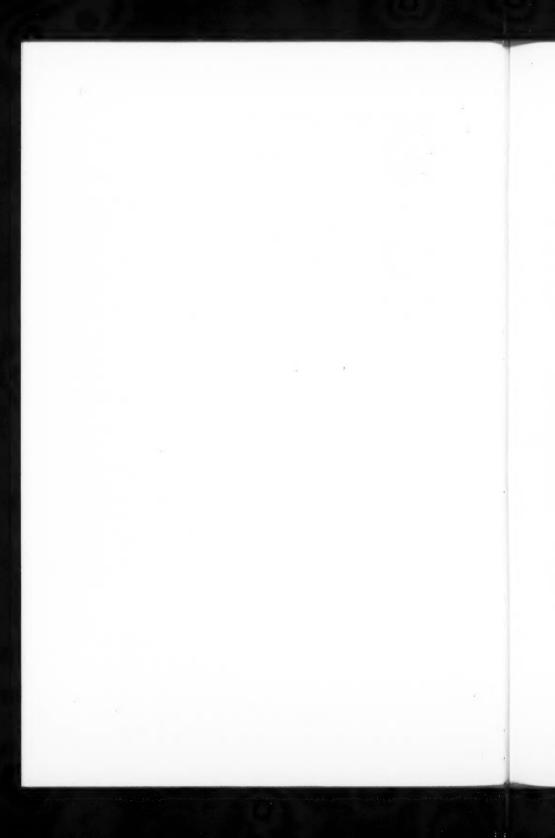
- 12. Warring Wilkinson, California.
- 13. Philip G. Gillett, Illinois.14. Wesley O. Connor, Georgia.
- 15-20. Edward Miner Gallaudet, District of Columbia. 21-23. Percival Hall, District of Columbia.

 - 24. Newton F. Walker, South Carolina.
 25. John W. Jones, Ohio.
 26. Frank M. Driggs, Utah.
 27. Elbert A. Gruver, Pennsylvania.
 28. Thomas S. McAloney, Colorado.

 - 29. Alvin E. Pope, New Jersey. 30. Harris Taylor, New York.

 - 31. Ignatius Bjorlee, Maryland.32. Elwood A. Stevenson, California.

 - Elwood A. Stevenson, California.
 Clarence J. Settles, Florida.
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 Daniel T. Cloud, New York.
 Truman L. Ingle, Missouri.
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 Edward R. Abernathy, Ohio.
 Richard G. Brill, California.



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OFFICERS

President.—Roy M. Stelle, Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind, Colorado Springs.

First vice president.-Lloyd Ambrosen, Maryland School for the Deaf, Frederick.

Second vice president.—Marvin Clatterbuck, Oregon School for the Deaf, Salem.

Secretary .- John Grace, Texas School for the Deaf, Austin.

Treasurer.-Thomas Dillon, New Mexico School for the Deaf, Santa Fe.

DIRECTORS

(The directors, with the officers, and the immediate past president, form the standing executive committee)

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Nathan P. Harris, Horace Mann School for the Deaf, Roxbury, Mass.

Nathan P. Harris, Horace Mann School for the Deaf, Roxbury, Mass. Richard G. Brill, California School for the Deaf, Riverside, immediate past president.

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First vice president.—Roy M. Stelle, Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind, Colorado Springs.

Second vice president.—Edward W. Tillinghast, Arizona School for the Deaf and the Blind, Tucson.

Secretary.—Genevieve M. Ryan, St. Joseph's School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y.

Treasurer.—Thomas Dillon, New Mexico School for the Deaf, Santa Fe.

DIRECTORS (1959-61)

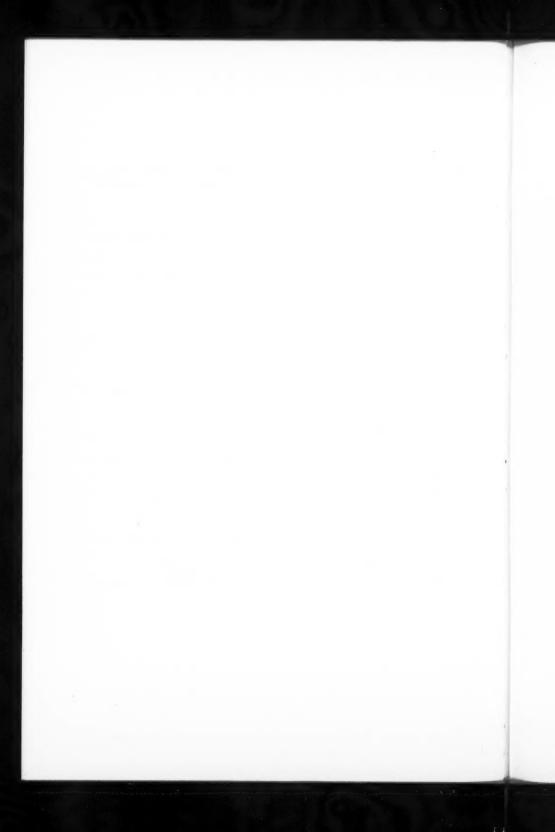
(The directors, with the officers, and the immediate past president, form the standing executive committee)

Ben E. Hoffmeyer, North Carolina School for the Deaf, Morganton.

Archie Leard, Saskatchewan School for the Deaf, Saskatoon.

Lloyd A. Ambrosen, Maryland School for the Deaf, Frederick.

Edward R. Abernathy, Ohio School for the Deaf, Columbus, immediate past president.



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La. Alexander, Mrs. Frances, Fulton, Mo. Alexander, Mrs. Mildred, Baton Rouge, La.

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Antonia, Sister Rose, University City, Mo.

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Blanchard, Leverett, West Hartford,

Conn. Blea, William A., Riverside, Calif. Blue, Mrs. Madeline, Romney, W. Va. Blum, Mrs. Mary, Spartanburg, S.C. Bluman, Bruce, Rome, N.Y.

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Bossarte, Alfred C., Jacksonville, Ill. Bouchard, Mrs. Eunice W., West Hartford, Conn.

Bouchard, Joseph W., West Hartford, Conn.

Bickert, Sister Leo Mary, S.C., Pitts- Bovard, Wilbur, Colorado Springs, Colo. Bowen, Isabel, Vancouver, British Columbia

Bowen, Mary, Faribault, Minn. Bowers, Joy C., Morganton, N.C. Bowman, Madge, Knoxville, Tenn. Bowyer, Emma Lucille, Flint, Mich. Boxley, Mrs. Mildred, Staunton, Va. Boyer, A. Wendell, Columbus, Ohio. Boyes, Florence J., Los Angeles, Calif. Brace, Lillian J. D., West Hartford, Conn.

Bracewell, Mrs. Clyde, Austin, Tex. Bradbury, Shirley, Indianapolis, Ind. Erelene L., Bradford, Mrs. Rouge, La.

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Bradley, Imogene, Little Rock, Ark. Bradley, Mrs. Ruth C., Jacksonville, Ill. Bradley, Troy, Little Rock, Ark. Bradshaw, Mrs. Norma Best, Danville,

Brady, Jack W., Romney, W. Va. Brady, Mrs. Patricia, New York, N.Y. Brady, Mrs. Robbye, Compton, Calif. Bragg, Bernard, Berkeley, Calif. Bragner, Mrs. Josephine E., Beverly. Mass.

Bragner, William E., Beverly, Mass. Braham, Mrs. Blanche, Fulton, Mo. Washington, Brandon, Wallace R., D.C.

Brant, Mrs. Barbara, Buffalo, N.Y. Brasel, Melvin H., Omaha, Nebr. Braselton, Mrs. Billye, Little Rock, Ark.

Braucht, Patricia L., Oklahoma City, Okla.

Braun, Mrs. Elizabeth, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa. Bray, Mrs. Elvira C., Cave Spring,

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Brelje, Henry, Vancouver, Wash. Brelje, Mrs. Joan L. M., Vancouver, Wash.

Brendle, Mrs. Josephine M., Morganton, N.C.

Brenner, Henry, Devils Lake, N. Dak. Brentlinger, Mrs. Dorothy H., Austin,

Brenton, Robert M., Brattleboro, Vt. Brewer, Mrs. Virginia V., Jacksonville, 111.

Bride, Mrs. Helen, Berkeley, Calif. Bright, Mrs. Anne, Romney, W. Va. Brightman, Mrs. Stella, Santa Fe. N. Mex.

Brill, Dr. Richard G., Riverside, Calif. Brininstool, Carl D., Austin, Tex. Broadbent, Howard C., Indianapolis,

Broadbent, Mrs. Loyce, Indianapolis. Ind.

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Broman, Mrs. Marcia H., Washington, Byers, Lois, Berkeley, Calif.

Bromley, Ronald, Knoxville, Tenn. Brooks, Charles L., White Plains, N.Y. Brooks, Mrs. Shyrle, Dallas, Tex. Brown, Mrs. Bessie, Spartanburg, S.C. Brown, C. Rebecca, Grand Rapids,

Mich.

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Brown, Mrs. McKay, Staunton, Va. Brown, Norman S., Indianapolis, Ind. Brown, Mrs. Ola M., Indianapolis, Ind. Brown, Osie B., Los Angeles, Calif. Brown, Dr. Robert S., Jackson, Miss. Brown, Mrs. Ruby C., Cleveland, Ohio Browning, Mrs. Anna, Austin, Tex. Bruce, Dorothea, Spartanburg, S.C. Bruce, Wallace, Ogden, Utah Brunjec, Adele, Mill Neck, Long Island,

N.Y. Bruns, Margaret E., Berkeley, Calif.

Bruns, William, Austin, Tex. Brunworth, Mrs. Barbara, Mill Neck, Long Island, N.Y.

Bryan, Mrs. Lucile, Baton Rouge, La. Bryant, Mrs. Goldie S., Spartanburg, S.C.

Buck, Elliott M., Rochester, N.Y. Buck, Franklin, Berkeley, Calif. Buckley, James A., Providence, R.I. Buff, Sarah J., Morganton, N.C. Bullock, Clareen, Detroit, Mich. Bullock, Donald, Romney, W. Va. Bullock, Mrs. Lois, Romney, W. Va. Bumann, Edmund F., St. Augustine, Fla.

Burdett, Kenneth, Ogden, Utah Burdette, Mrs. Fay, Olathe, Kans. Burdick, Mrs. Eve C., Flint, Mich. Burke, Mrs. Beatrice, Washington, D.C. Burke, Doris A., New York, N.Y. Burke, Harry C., Flint, Mich.

Burge, Rosemary M., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Burks, Joe, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Burnes, Dr. Byron B., Berkeley, Calif. Burnes, Mrs. Caroline H., Berkeley,

Burnet, Eugenia, Santa Fe., N. Mex. Burns, Mrs. Cynthia, Knoxville, Tenn. Burns, Mrs. Cladyce, Devils Lake, N. Dak.

Burns, Mrs. Rosemary, Indianapolis,

Burrows, Mrs. Maxine, Detroit, Mich. Burstein, Gerald, Faribault, Minn. Busby, Mrs. Caroline M., Jacksonville,

Bushey, Norma M., Morganton, N.C. Butler, Mrs. Gwendel D., Austin, Tex. Butler, Raymond, Austin, Tex. Butman, Mrs. Gladys, Beverly, Mass. Byers, Mrs. Callie J., Cave Spring, Ga.

Byrtus, Al M., West Hartford, Conn. Caffee, Mrs. Elnora, Hampton, Va. Caldwell, Golda, Austin, Tex. Caldwell, Matthew, Austin, Tex. Calhoun, Roy, Little Rock, Ark. Callow, Joyce, Mill Neck, L.I., N.Y. Calvert, Mrs. Rae, Berkeley, Calif. Camenisch, Emily, Rome, N.Y. Campbell, Mrs. Barbara, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Campbell, Mrs. Margaret, Indianapolis, Ind.

Campbell, Mrs. Mary, Berkeley, Calif. Canal, Gloria, New York, N.Y. Canales, Armida A., Waltham, Mass. Canon, James C., Jackson, Miss. Cantrall, Mrs. Ruth, Olathe, Kans, Caple, John L., Cave Spring, Ga. Capps, Elizabeth S., Jacksonville, Ill. Caradine, Don, New York, N.Y. Carano, Mrs. Pat, Dearborn, Mich. Caras, Helen, Buffalo, N.Y. Carben, Evelyn, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Carino, Leticia, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Carl, Faith, Berkeley, Calif. Carl, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph,

Mass. Carla, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph,

Carlos, Joaquina, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Mrs. Bettie, Sioux Falls. S. Dak.

Carlson, David, Sioux Falls, S. Dak. Carlson, John, Staunton, Va.

Carmichael, Minnie M., Knoxville. Tenn. Carr, Agnes H., Jacksonville, Ill.

Carr. Barbara, Romney, W. Va. Carr, Josephine, White Plains, N.Y. Carr, Mrs. Margaret, Knoxville, Tenn. Carrithers, Winifred, Salem, Oreg. Carroll, Mrs. Ella, Detroit, Mich. Carson, Agnes A., Jacksonville, Ill. Carson, Mary E., Indianapolis, Ind. Carter, Mark W., Delavan, Wis. Carter, Mrs. Nancy, Indianapolis, Ind. Carter, Ronald M., Indianapolis, Ind. Carver, Mrs. Laone, Faribault, Minn. Cascio, Mrs. Mary D'Oro, West Haven, Conn.

Casey, Katherine, Cave Spring, Ga. Casey, Mrs. Polly N., Cave Spring, Ga. Cash, Mrs. Thelma, Danville, Ky. Caskey, Mrs. Bernadine, Indianapolis, Ind.

Caskey, Jacob L., Indianapolis, Ind. Castle, Mrs. Elizabeth, Faribault, Minn. Causby, Mrs. Anne C., Morganton, N.C. Causby, Ralph, St. Augustine, Fla. Celano, Mrs. Frances L., New York, N.Y. Cenci, Mrs. Mary Beth, West Hartford.

Chamberlain, Mrs. Lessie, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Chambers, Mrs. Anna, Beverly, Mass. Chambers, Florence, Portland, Oreg. Chapman, Mrs. Beatrice S., Morganton,

N.C.
Charlton, Ella, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Chavis, Mrs. Mildred L., Raleigh, N.C.
Chevallier, Ada M., Santa Fe, N. Mex.
Chew, Mrs. Nelle, Council Bluffs, Iowa
Chong, Mary, Oakville, Ontario
Christian, Harvey, Olathe, Kans.
Christian, Susan, Indianapolis, Ind.
Christiansen, Grace E., Stevens Point,
Wis.

Christopulos, Tony, Ogden, Utah Chubb, Mrs. Louise B., Cave Spring, Ga. Chwalow, Mrs. Esther, Philadelphia, Pa.

Clapp, Mrs. Dorothy, Council Bluffs,

Clapp, Mrs. Jo Ann, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Clark, Albert G., Spartanburg, S.C.
Clark, Alice, Portland, Oreg.
Clark, Clarence J., Baton Rouge, La.
Clark, Mrs. Dorothy, Flint, Mich.
Clark, Kenneth E., Danville, Ky.
Clark, Thomas, Salem, Oreg.
Clark, Wayne A., Jacksonville, Ill.
Clarke, Gordon W. West Hartford,
Conn.

Clarke, Mrs. Ruth F., West Hartford, Conn.

Clasby, Charles M., Waltham, Mass. Clatterbuck, Mrs. Margaret, Salem, Oreg.

Clatterbuck, Marvin, Salem, Oreg.
Cleary, John, Spartanburg, S.C.
Cleary, Mrs. Sharon D., Rochester, N.Y.
Clements, Edward E., Jacksonville, Ill.
Clements, Ruth E., Riverside, Calif.
Clench, Mrs. Odette, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Cleveland, Mrs. Dorothy C., Talladega, Ala.

Cleveland, Vincent, Spartanburg, S.C. Clinard, Mrs. Wilmoth D., Macon, Ga. Clingenpeel, Robert, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Cloud, Dr. Daniel T., White Plains, N.Y. Coats, Dewey G., Fulton, Mo. Cobb, Mrs. Jane, Knoxville, Tenn. Cobb, Regina, Knoxville, Tenn. Coffman, Opal, Faribault, Minn. Coggers, Sister Maureen, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Cohen, Abram, Providence, R.I. Colavito, Louise, New York, N.Y. Colden, George, Hampton, Va. Coleman, Mrs. Mary M., Rochester,

Coleman, Sara L., Danville, Ky.
Coll, Mrs. Mary Belle, Olathe, Kans.
Colley, Mrs. Flossie M., Sulphur, Okla.
Colo, Ann Marie, West Hartford, Conn.
Colson, Alex G., Riverside, Calif.
Colton, Mrs. Sandra L., West Hartford,
Conn.

Combs, Barbara, Romney, W. Va.

Comeaux, Mrs. Virginia, Baton Rouge, La.

Comstock, John, Rome, N.Y. Conklin, Cara McMillan, St. Paul, Minn. Conley, Mrs. Ann, Buffalo, N.Y. Connelly, Sister Helen Louise, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Connolly, Eileen E., Roxbury, Mass. Connor, Dr. Leo E., New York, N.Y. Connor, Mrs. Marcella S., Omaha, Nebr. Connors, Albert, Rome, N.Y. Connors, Theresa, Faribault, Minn. Conover, Mrs. Elizabeth, Columbus, Ohio.

Conrad, Mrs. Mary P., Baton Rouge, La. Conti, Richard A., White Plains, N.Y.

Conti, Roseanna A., New York, N.Y. Convery, Mrs. Vernice H., Riverside, Calif.

Conway, Mary C., New York, N.Y. Conway, Mrs. Zita R., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Cook, Mrs. Beverly R., Riverside, Calif. Cook, Mrs. Lenore, Staunton, Va. Cook, Phyllis M., West Hartford, Conn. Cooper, Mrs. Miriam, Ogden, Utah Cooper, Ruth L., Morganton, N.C. Copeland, Mrs. Bernice, Council Bluffs, Iowa

Copeland, Lillian B., Flint, Mich. Copeland, Sister Marie Estelle, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Copenhaver, Mrs. Evelyn H. Morganton, N.C.
Copperud, Mrs. Damaris, Berkeley,

Calif.
Corbett, Patricia, Columbus, Ohio
Cordano, Waldo T., Delavan, Wis.
Coretti, Marie, Romney, W. Va.
Coriale, Rose L., Indianapolis, Ind.

Coriale, Rose L., Indianapolis, Ind. Correa, Esperanza, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Corrington, Mrs. Lucille R., Jacksonville, Ill. Corrington, Marguerite A., Jacksonville,

Ill.
Cory, Winifred C., Ottawa, Ontario
Cotton, Jóan M., West Hartford, Conn.
Couch, Mrs. Jeanette M., Sulphur, Okla.
Coumar, Mary E., New York, N.Y.
Courrege, Armand S., Baton Rouge, La.
Courrege, Mrs. Sidney, Baton Rouge,

La.
Covell, Mrs. Mary P., New York, N.Y.
Cowan, Mrs. Inez, Knoxville, Tenn.
Cox, Mrs. Edna, Little Rock, Ark.
Cox, John T., St. Augustine, Fla.
Craig, Mrs. Helen B., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Craig, Dr. Sam B., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa. Craig, Mrs. Sunshine C., Austin, Tex. Crammatte, Alan B., Washington, D.C. Crane, Norman, New York, N.Y.

Cranwill, Shirley A., Washington, D.C. Cravens, Mrs. Thelma H., Sulphur, Okla.

Cress, Milford W., Jacksonville, Ill. Crichlow, Hazel, St. Augustine, Fla. Crider, Woodie, Cave Spring, Ga. Criscillis, Mossie, St. Augustine, Fla. Criss, Mary L., Tucson, Ariz. Crocker, Mrs. Nell, Spartanburg, S.C. Crockett, Claire, Austin, Tex. Crockett, M. H., Raleigh, N.C. Croneberg, Carl, Washington, D.C. Crosby, Mrs. Laura L., Delavan, Wis. Crosby, Mrs. Lily, Staunton, Va. Crossett, Mrs. Sue O., Rochester, N.Y. Crossman, Agnes, Berkeley, Calif. Crouse, Lawrence, Rome, N.Y. Crouter, John Yale, Providence, R.I. Crow, Arthur, Little Rock, Ark. Crowder, Mrs. Jane, Spartanburg, S.C. Crowley, Mrs. Elizabeth, Brattleboro, Cruickshank, Mrs. Doris, Detroit, Mich.

Cruickshank, Mrs. Doris, Detroit, Mich. Crump, Robert L., Omaha, Nebr. Crutchfield, Mrs. Bashie C., Morganton,

N.C. Crutchfield, Paul B., Morganton, N.C. Cubley, Mrs. Charlotte H., St. Augustine,

Culdy, Catherine M., Roxbury, Mass. Culbertson, George, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Culbertson, Jean, Carmichael, Calif. Culbreath, Mrs. Cleo, Austin, Tex. Culton, Paul, Jr., Council Bluffs, Iowa Cummings, Mrs. Ann, Brattleboro, Vt. Cunius, Leah H., Los Angeles, Calif. Cunningham, Mrs. Dorine, Dallas, Tex. Cunningham, Mrs. Emma, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Cunningham, Mrs. Josie, Indianapolis,

Curb, Mrs. Laura, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Curchin, Ames, Rochester, N.Y. Curren, Mrs. Margaret P., New York, N.Y.

Curry, Mrs. Ann H., Roxbury, Mass. Curry, Carol, Berkeley, Calif. Curry, Mrs. Irma A., Delavan, Wis. Curry, Mrs. Ruth, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Curry, Mrs. Ruth, Edgewood, Pitts burgh, Pa. Curtis, Gary A., West Hartford, Conn. Curtis, Helen, Flint, Mich.

Curtis, Marie, Baton Rouge, La. Cutler, Mrs. Goldie, Philadelphia, Pa. Czernicki, Edward, Great Falls, Mont. Dacey, Edward L., Jr., Newark, N.J. Dahl, Erna, Redondo Beach, Calif. Dahlquist, Mrs. Doris H., Vancouver,

Wash.
Dailey, Joan, Detroit, Mich.

Dain, Mrs. Janet, Rome, N.Y. Dakin, Charles L., Vancouver, British Columbia.

Daniels, Margaret E., Washington, D.C. Darby, Albert W., West Hartford, Conn. d'Arc, Sister Jeanne, St. Louis, Mo. Davidowitz, David A., White Plains, N.Y.

Davies, George H., Sulphur, Okla.

Davila, Robert R., White Plains, N.Y.
Davis, Anne N., Frederick, Md.
Davis, Carl J., Watertown, Mass.
Davis, Cecil, Jackson, Miss.
Davis, Clarence, Fulton, Mo.
Davis, Mrs. Erma D., White Plains,
N.Y.
Davis, Fannie Belle, Little Rock, Ark.
Davis, Fern, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Davies, Mrs. Waneta, Salem, Oreg.

Davis, Fern, Council Bluffs, Iowa. Davis, Mrs. Frances E., Morganton, N.C. Davis, Mrs. Jean, Fulton, Mo.

Davis, Mrs. Lois, Jackson, Miss.
Davis, Mrs. Marilyn, Austin, Tex.
Davis, Martha, Talladega, Ala.
Davis, O. D., Berkeley, Calif.
Davis, Richard O., Fulton, Mo.
Davis, Robert, Austin, Tex.
Davis, Robert, Austin, Tex.
Davis, Robinson, Fulton, Mo.
Dawson, Mrs. Marjorie B., Riverside,
Calif.

Dawson, Robert T., Salem, Oreg.
Day, Mrs. Catherine, Knoxville, Tenn.
Day, Elizabeth, Faribault, Minn.
Day, Mrs. Matilda, Cleveland, Ohio.
Dean, Mrs. Barbara S., Romney, W. Va.
Dean, Mrs. Paula W., Austin, Tex.
DeArman, Louise, Little Rock, Ark.
DeArman, Mildred, Little Rock, Ark.
Decherd, Mrs. Helen S., Austin, Tex.

Declan, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass. Dedig, Sister Marie Andrea, S.C., Pitts-

burgh, Pa.
Dedrick, Mrs. Ruth Van Male, West
Hartford, Conn.

Deems, Mrs. Eva R., Danville, Ky. Deer, Mrs. Esther M., Vancouver, Wash. DeFreitas, Barbara A., Jacksonville, Ill.

Degnan, Catherine A., New York, N.Y. Degnan, Catherine A., New York, N.Y. DeHaven, Mrs. Mabel, Olathe, Kans. DeLaney, John, Buffalo, N.Y. Delaney, John T., Washington, D.C. DeLaughter, Mrs. Wille M., Morgan-

DeLaughter, Mrs. Willie M., Morganton, N.C.
Delgado, Gilbert L., Berkeley, Calif.

DeLong, Mrs. Doris M., Riverside, Calif. DeLozier, Alberta, Knoxville, Tenn. DeLuca, Mrs. Marianne, Berkeley, Calif.

Dement, Sue, Council Bluffs, Iowa Dempsey, Mrs. Katie, Talladega, Ala. Denis, Taras B., White Plains, N.Y. Denise, Sister M. Winifred, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

Randolph, Mass.
Dennis, Mrs. Roberta B., St. Louis, Mo.
Denno, Bruce, Flint, Mich.
Denton, David M., Morganton, N.C.
DeRose, Mrs. Kathry N., Memphis,

Tenn.
Densmore, Anette, New York, N.Y.
DeSoto, Mrs. Eunice, Tacoma, Wash.
Desrosier, Thomas Russell, West Hartford, Conn.

Detmold, George E., Washington, D.C. Detweiler, Mrs. Ada Belle, Council Bluffs, Iowa

Deveney, Mary F, Roxbury, Mass. Dever, Mrs. Jane, Talladega, Ala. DeVinney, Charles F., Vancouver, Wash

DeVore, Margaret, Casper, Wyo. Dezelan, Mrs. Carrie, Indianapolis, Ind. Dial, Helen T., Jacksonville, Ill. Diamond, Rudolph, Los Angeles, Calif. Diarmit, Mrs. Loretta, Salem, Oreg. Dickens, Mrs. Hattie M., Morganton, N.C.

Dickinson, Clifford, Washington, D.C. Dickerson, Joan, Spokane, Wash. Dickerson, Mrs. Lottie W., Raleigh, N.C.

Dickerson, Mrs. Vassar, St. Augustine, Fla.

Dickinson, Mrs. Mildred, Olathe, Kans. Dickmann, Mrs. Eileen M., New York, N.Y.

Dickson, Wesley, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Dierks, Mrs. Harriett, Memphis, Tenn. Dietrich, Rose I., Flint, Mich. Dillard, Connor, Cave Spring, Ga. Dillon, Mrs. Florence, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Dillon, Thomas, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Dinco, Yvonne, Pittsburgh, Pa. Dionysius, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Ran-

dolph, Mass.
Diot, Mrs. Virginia, Vancouver, Wash.
Dobson, Mrs. Bertha, Faribault, Minn.
Dobson, Chester, Faribault, Minn.
Dobson, Mary, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Doctor, Powrie V., Washington, D.C.
Dolan, Cormack J., New York, N.Y.
Domich, Harold J., Washington, D.C.
Donahoe, Mrs. Julia C., Talladega, Ala.
Donahue, Alice L., Minneapolis, Minn.
Donald, Maureen, Vancouver, British

Columbia.
Donaldson, Don, Vancouver, Wash.
Donaldson, Mrs. Mildred, Vancouver,

Wash.
Donovan, June, West Hartford, Conn.
Donelson, Mrs. Ruth, Flint, Mich.
Donnelly, Marguerite A., Waltham,
Mass.

Donovan, Margaret, Jacksonville, Ill. Dorman, Mrs. Mary Lou, Santa Fe, N. Mex.

Doucette, Mrs. Anna, Baton Rouge, La. Doucette, Neil J., Baton Rouge, La. Douglas, Albert, Austin, Tex. Douglas, Mrs. Ruth, Austin, Tex. Douglass, Frances M., New York, N.Y. Dowd, Mrs. Helen, Indianapolis, Ind. Dowling, Patrick J., Jacksonville, Ill. Downey, Isabel A., Roxbury, Mass. Downward, Betty, Great Falls, Mont. Doyle, Maurene, Brattleboro, Vt. Dozier, Justin, Los Angeles, Calif. Drake, Dennis, Council Bluffs, Iowa. Drake, Mrs. Elsie D., Jackson, Miss.

Drake, Mrs. Gladys, Dallas, Tex. Dreistadt, Sister M. Justina, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa. Dreschler, Ronald, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.

Drimmelen, Thomas Van, Ogden, Utah. Drisdale, Mrs. Iva P., Baton Rouge, La. Duck, Dale D., Sulphur, Okla. Dudley, Mrs. Carolyn, Colorado

Springs, Colo.
Duffin, Mrs. Sue, Rome, N.Y.
Duick, Charles D., Delavan, Wis.
Duick, Mrs. Edra H., Delavan, Wis.
Dunn Agnes M. Washington, D.C.

Dunn, Agnes M., Washington, D.C. Dunn, Mrs. Marie P., West Hartford, Conn.

Dunn, Mrs. Martha, Rome, N.Y. Dunn, Mary L., Pittsburgh, Pa. Dunn, Ruth, Austin, Tex. Dunnington, Marilyn, Fulton, Mo. Du Puis, Ruth, Portland, Oreg. Durham, Mrs. Katherine M., Danville,

Durham, Mrs. Sibbie M., Danville, Ky. Durnin, Mary A., Riverside, Calif. Dutton, Mrs. Madeline, Portland, Oreg. Dwyer, Mrs. Elizabeth, Santa Fe, N. Mex.

Dyer, Mrs. Edithlyn, Dallas, Tex. Dyer, Lyana, Columbus, Ohio Dziuba, Joanne M., Flint, Mich. Dziurzynski, Stanley, Knoxville, Tenn. Dzurick, Russel, Fulton, Mo. Eads, Mrs. Frances, Little Rock, Ark. Eastman, Gilbert C., Washington, D.C. Eaton, Gertie, Austin, Tex. Ebert, Janice, Council Bluffs, Iowa Edelin, Patricia, Washington, D.C. Eder, Martha R., Rochester, N.Y. Edge, Mrs. Lillie Key, Edgewood,

Pittsburgh, Pa.
Edmondson, Mrs. Hattie M., Raleigh,
N.C.
Edmondson, W. R., Raleigh, N.C.
Edmunds, Henry C., Knoxville, Tenn.

Edwards, Mrs. Evelyn, Mill Neck, Long Island, N.Y. Egbert, Mrs. Ethel H., Vancouver,

Wash. Eichelberger, Mrs. Barbara, Buffalo, N.Y.

Ekstrom, Mrs. Faith F., Columbus, Ohio Elam, Mrs. Carolyn S., St. Augustine,

Fla. Eleeson, Elizabeth, Devils Lake, N. Dak.

Elise, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass. Elkins, Earl, Knoxville, Tenn.

Ellen, Shelia, Vancouver, British Columbia Elliott, Mattie J., St. Louis, Mo. Elliott, Mrs. Shirley, Dallas, Tex.

Elliott, Mrs. Shirley, Dallas, Tex. Ellis, Charles A., Sioux Falls, S. Dak. Ellis, Mrs. Dorothy G., West Hartford, Conn.

Ellis, Evan J., Riverside, Calif.

Ellis, Jean E., New York, N.Y.
Elmassian, Nazelie, Los Angeles, Calif.
Elstad, Dr. Leonard M., Washington,
D.C.

Eiting, Mrs. Julia T., Newark, N.J. Ely, Mrs. Mildred Smith, West Hartford, Conn.

Embrey, Mrs. Roberta, Olathe, Kans. Embry, Joan, Danville, Ky. Emerick, Aletha G., Riverside, Calif. Emerick, Mrs. Ruth, Council Bluffs,

Enola, John, Brattleboro, Vt.
Epperson, Virgil W., Vancouver, Wash.
Epps, Mrs. Margaret, Hampton, Va.
Eriksen, Martin, Great Falls, Mont.
Eriksen, Mrs. Ruby, Great Falls, Mont.
Erickson, Agnes, Detroit, Mich.
Erickson, Delbert L., Rochester, N.Y.
Erlandson, Delores, Tucson, Ariz.
Essex, Mrs. Wanda, Wichita, Kans.
Esterline, Albert C., Faribault, Minn.
Esterline, Mrs. Lucille, Faribault,

Estes, Caroline C., San Francisco, Calif. Eubanks, Mrs. Ethel A., Baton Rouge,

Evans, Mrs. Blanche K., Tucson, Ariz. Evans, Lillian M., Los Angeles, Calif. Evans, Maureen, New York, N.Y. Evans, Mrs. Ruth, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Evans, Mrs. Vela V., St. Augustine,

Ewing, Mrs. Mabel, Danville, Ky. Eymard, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph,

Fair, Mrs. Ellen, Indianapolis, Ind. Fair, William L., Indianapolis, Ind. Fanchea, Sister, University City, Mo. Fanchea, Sister, University City, Mo. Fandrei, Mimi J., Tulsa, Okla. Fant, Louie J., Washington, D.C. Farman, J. Jay, Brattleboro, Vt. Farquhar, Mrs. Ethel, Fulton, Mo. Farquhar, Grover C., Fulton, Mo. Farquhar, Grover C., Fulton, Mo. Farrar, Mrs. Helen, Ogden, Utah Fauth, Mrs. Bette L., Riverside, Calif. Fauth, Edith M., Frederick, Md. Fauth, Warren W., Riverside, Calif. Favors, Aaron, Council Bluffs, Iowa Felder, Mrs. Blanche B., Baton Rouge,

Feldman, Albert, New York, N.Y.
Feller, Edward, Baton Rouge, La.
Fenton, Kate, Ogden, Utah
Fergason, Stanley, Olathe, Kans.
Ferris, Mrs. Margaret, Oshkosh, Wis.
Fessant, John, Salem, Oreg.
Fewell, Mrs. Gene, Indianapolis, Ind.
Fewell, Russell T., Indianapolis, Ind.
File, Mrs. Hazel R., Jacksonville, Ill.
Fincher, Mrs. Mabel L., Cave Spring,
Ga.

Finley, Juanita, Cave Spring, Ga. Finn, Mrs. Bernardine, Los Angeles, Calif. Fischer, Mrs. Martha, Minneapolis, Minn.

Fisher, Mrs. Ida F., Talladega, Ala. Fisher, Mrs. Lillian, Tacoma, Wash. Fishler, Thomas G., Riverside, Calif. Fitzpatrick, Sister M. Bridgetta, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Fjeran, Dorothy, Minneapolis, Minn. Flahault, Mrs. Judyn, Pittsburgh, Pa. Flanagan, Carl W., Romney, W. Va. Flanigan, Mrs. Elizabeth, Columbus, Ohio.

Fleming, Hazel G., Roxbury, Mass. Fleming, Mrs. Nettie G., St. Augustine,

Fleming, Robert G., Sulphur, Okla. Fleming, Mrs. Vivian, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Fletcher, Mrs. Marion, Brattleboro, Vt. Flint, Richard W., Sioux Falls, S. Dak. Flister, Sara, Pittsburgh, Pa. Flood, James T., Columbus, Ohio. Flood, Mrs. Kathryn, Columbus, Ohio. Flower, Mrs. Barbara, Fulton, Mo. Floyd, Mrs. Margaret, Santa Fe., N.

Floyd, Mrs. Margaret, Santa Fe., N. Mex.
Flynn, Frances, West Hartford, Conn.

Fogg, Mrs. Margaret Ames, West Hartford, Conn.
Foley, Merle, Baton Rouge, La.
Folsom Mrs. Marion Faribault Minn.

Folsom, Mrs. Marion, Faribault, Minn. Ford, Mrs. Eugenia, Baton Rouge, La. Foreman, Jack, Gooding, Idaho. Forrest, Joe, Spartanburg, S.C. Forsberg, Elsie, Detroit, Mich. Forslin, Mrs. Adelaide M., Minneapolis, Minn.

Forsyth, Mrs. Winifred J., St. Augustine Fla.

tine Fla.
Fort, Mrs. Bernice, Casper, Wyo.
Foss, Mrs. Sally, Sloux Falls, S. Dak.
Foster, Mrs. Honora B., Waltham, Mass.
Foster, Janet W., Los Angeles, Calif.
Foster, Sharon, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Fouts, Mrs. Mildred, Tucson, Ariz.
Fowler, Amy, Indianapolis, Ind.
Fowler, Carrie, St. Augustine, Fla.
Fowler, Mrs. Kate B. Morganton, N.C.
Fowler, Robert L., Vancouver, Wash.
Fox, Anna R., New York, N.Y.
Fox, Jesse E., Austin, Tex.
Francis, Doris H., Washington, D.C.

Francis, Doris H., Washington, D.C.
Franks, Marion, Talladega, Ala.
Fraser, Mrs. Sarah, Berkeley, Calif.
Frederick, Barry N., West Hartford,
Conn.
Fredericks, Baymond K. St. Augustine

Fredericks, Raymond K., St. Augustine, Fla.

Freeman, Mrs. Helen B., Austin, Tex. Freeman, Jerome W., Austin, Tex. Freemantle, Peter O., Vancouver, British Columbia

Freund, Mrs. Dorothy, Faribault, Minn. Frisch, Frances M., Jacksonville, Ill. Frisina, Robert, Washington, D.C. Fritch, Mrs. Frances, Indianapolis, Ind. Frueh, Frank X., Indianapolis, Ind. Fruewald, Mrs. Elizabeth, Knoxville, Tenn.

Frye, Mrs. Rubye, Washington, D.C. Fultz, Vae R., Wichita, Kans. Fusfeld, Dr. Irving S., Berkeley, Calif. Gaeth, John H., Detroit, Mich. Gaffney, Kathleen M., White Plains,

N.Y.

Gage, Mrs. Elizabeth, Beverly, Mass. Gainey, Keith E., Cleveland, Ohio Galligan, Loretta, Baton Rouge, La. Gallimore, Ray H., Indianapolis, Ind. Galloway, James H., Rochester, N.Y. Galluzzo, Frank P., Colorado Springs, Colo.

Galluzzo, Mrs. Suzanne, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Galvan, John, Berkeley, Calif.
Gannon, Jack R., Omaha, Nebr.
Gannon, Mrs. Rosalyn L., Omaha, Nebr.
Gant, Mrs. Evelyn F., Delavan, Wis.
Gant, John R., Delavan, Wis.
Garber, Mrs. Nettie Mae, Berkeley,

Calif.

Gardner, Rosalyn, Washington, D.C.
Garman, Mary Hill, Salem, Oreg.
Garner, Lela Mae, Spartanburg, S.C.
Garnett, Christopher B., Jr., Washington, D.C.

Garretson, Mrs. Carol J., Great Falls, Mont.

Garretson, Mervin D., Great Falls, Mont.

Garrett, Erpel L., Riverside, Calif. Garrison, Mrs. Myra M., Omaha, Nebr. Garrison, Mrs. Paula W., Morganton, N.C.

Garrity, Sister Rose Xavier, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Garrow, Olive G., New York, N.Y. Gartner, Carl, Columbus, Ohio Gastman, Carl, Berkeley, Calif. Gates, Mrs. Iolla V., Riverside, Calif. Gatlin, Theda, Little Rock, Ark. Gaughan, Mrs. Ann M., New York, N.Y. Gay, Mrs. Mildred E., Sulphur, Okla. Geary, Catherine P., New York, N.Y. Geesling, Mrs. Alice, Los Angeles, Calif. Gelabert, Elizabeth, New York, N.Y. Genettl, Anne, Kalamazoo, Mich. Gengzer, Louise M., Portland, Oreg. Georgiou, A., Vancouver, British Columbia

Germany, Jeremiah, Knoxville, Tenn. Gertrude Ph.d, Sister Rose, Buffalo, N.Y.

Gesner, Mrs. Elizabeth T., Los Angeles, Calif.

Geyer, Mrs. Carolyn, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.

Giangreco, C. Joseph, Council Bluffs, Iowa

Giannino, Frances, Buffalo, N.Y. Gibbons, Doris, West Hartford, Conn. Gibish, Mrs. Stella, Pittsburgh, Pa. Giessow, Edward H., St. Louis, Mo. Giett, Mrs. Ethel M., West Hartford, Conn.

Gignilliat, Sally M., Tucson, Ariz. Gilchrist, Wright S., Talladega, Ala. Giles, Mrs. Cordelia H., Morganton, N.C.

N.C.
Giles, Mrs. John R., Talladega, Ala.
Gill, Mrs. Addie W., Baton Rouge, La.
Gilleland, Mrs. Ruth, Lorain, Ohio
Gillespie, Mrs. Margaret, Tucson, Ariz.
Gilman, Mrs. Anna, Salem, Oreg.
Gilmartin, Helen, Detroit, Mich.
Gisondi, Mrs. Rose, Rome, N.Y.
Gittzus, Mrs. Maureen, Beverly, Mass.
Givens, Elizabeth E., Indianapolis, Ind.
Glancy, Leonard, Indianapolis, Ind.
Glawe, Arleen, Salem, Oreg.
Glenn, Charles W., Cave Spring, Ga.
Glenn, Mrs. Marie, Salem, Oreg.
Glenn, Mrs. May F., Cave Spring, Ga.
Goddard, Mrs. Margaret, Rome, N.Y.
Godfrey, Mrs. Ruth W., Jacksonville,
Ill.

Godich, Mrs. Henrietta, Indianapolis, Ind.

Godshalk, Joan, New York, N.Y. Goebel, Gerald, Mill Neck, Long Island, N.Y.

Goetter, Marie S., Omaha, Nebr.
Goetzinger, Dr. C. P., Olathe, Kans.
Goetzinger, Mrs. Rita, Olathe, Kans.
Goff, Mrs. Neila, Providence, R.I.
Goforth, Mrs. Amy Jo, Knoxville, Tenn.
Golns, Lucy B., Morganton, N.C.
Golden, John, Little Rock, Ark.
Golden, Mrs. Kathryn, Knoxville, Tenn.
Golden, May P., New York, N.Y.
Goldman, Merle, Indianapolis, Ind.
Goldman, Morris, Washington, D.C.
Goldsborough, Anna, Providence, R.I.
Goldsmith, Mrs. Clarice, Salem, Oreg.
Golightly, James V., Morganton, N.C.
Golladay, Loy E., West Hartford, Conn.
Golladay, Mrs. Lucile, Romney, W. Va.
Gonzales, John, Little Rock, Ark.
Gonzales, Robert, Santa Fe, N. Mex.
Goodman, Mrs. Isabella, Huntington,

W. Va.
Goodwin, Mrs. Hazel, Jackson, Miss.
Goodwin, Will, Jackson, Miss.
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Gordon, Marjorie, Morganton, N.C.
Gordon, Nancy, Staunton, Va.
Gordon, Mrs. W. G., Colorado Springs,
Colo.

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Fla. Graham, Mrs. Gloria, Staunton, Va. Grainger, Mrs. Nevelyn. Washington.

Grant, Mary B., Indianapolis, Ind. Graunke, Dr. W. Lloyd, Knoxville,

Graveline, Grace, Detroit, Mich. Graves, Mrs. Natalie, Berkeley, Calif. Gray, L. Arlie, Baton Rouge, La. Gray, Richard A., Riverside, Calif. Gray, Mrs. Virginia O., Jacksonville, Ill.

Greathouse, Mrs. Jean M., Riverside,

Green, Adele F., Casper, Wyo. Green, Elizabeth, Detroit, Mich. Green, Elizabeth, Indianapolis, Ind.

Green, Mrs. Sylvania, Spartanburg, S.C. Greenberg, Bernard L., Washington, D.C.

Greenlee, Mrs. Zelma, Council Bluffs, Greenmun, Robert M., St. Augustine,

Greenmun, Mrs. Rosalind, St. Augus-

tine. Fla. Greever, Mrs. Gaynelle, Staunton, Va. Gremillion, Harvey, Baton Rouge, La. Griffin, Barbara, Rochester, N.Y. Griffing, Barry L., Riverside, Calif.

Griffing, Mrs. Wendell A., Sulphur, Okla.

Griffing, William T., Sulphur, Okla. Griffith, Mrs. Edra, Olathe, Kans. Grinde, Flora M., Sioux Falls, S. Dak. Groht, Dr. Mildred, Brattleboro, Vt. Groode, Joyce R., Los Angeles, Calif. Groves, Donna, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Grow, Charles B., Danville, Ky. Grow, William H., St. Augustine, Fla. Gruber, Barbara, Riverside, Calif. Gruehr, Milan, Brattleboro, Vt. Gruenhangen, Merlen G., Columbus, Ohio.

Gruss, Betty, Fairbault, Minn. Grussing, Mrs. Florence, Vancouver, Wash.

Gruver, Margaret H., Providence, R.I. Guardiola, Mrs. Genevieve, Cleveland,

Guenther, Lester, Fulton, Mo. Guess, Mrs. Toshiko, White Plains, N.Y. Guillory, Mrs. Lavera, Baton Rouge,

Guilmartin, Mary, St. Augustine, Fla. Gulbranson, Claude, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.

Gulick, Mrs. Mabel, Olathe, Kans. Gunderson, Rosella, Berkeley, Calif. Gustafson, Fred, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Gutin, Albert, Frederick, Md. Gutin, Mrs. A. Bernice, Frederick, Md. Haanen, Della M., Tucson, Ariz. Haaser, Augusta, Indianapolis, Ind. Hackley, Staley P., Omaha, Nebr. Hadlock, Mrs. Stella, Rome, N.Y.

Hagerman, Mrs. Ethel, Council Bluffs,

Haglund, Lois, Mill Neck, Long Island,

Haines, Mrs. Margaret, Romney, W. Va. Haislip, Mrs. Camille, Staunton, Va. Hajna, Mrs. Regina, Rome, N.Y.

Halberg, David H., West Hartford,

Haley, Mrs. Edna G., Beverly, Mass. Hall, Mrs. Charlotte, Knoxville, Tenn. Hall, Jonathan, Washington, D.C. Hall, LeRoy B., Sulphur, Okla. Hall, Mrs. Nancy W., Columbus, Ohio Hall, Percival, Jr., Washington, D.C. Hall, Mrs. Tommy G., Sulphur, Okla. Hallman, Anna, Olathe, Kans. Hamel, Clara A., Rochester, N.Y. Hammer, Edward, Devils Lake, N. Dak. Frieda, Hammermeister, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Hammett, Mrs. Raymond, Talladega. Ala.

Hammitt, Dorothy, New York, N.Y. Hammond, Marjorie, Dearborn, Mich. Hampton, Mrs. Annie Frances, Los Angeles, Calif.

Hampton, Mrs. Ida G., St. Augustine, Fla.

Hance, Mrs. Agnes, Detroit, Mich. Hanes, Mrs. Gertrude, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Haney, Mrs. Mary R., White Plains, N.Y.

Hankins, Joseph A., Jacksonville, Ill. Hanlon, Sister Marie Colette, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Hansen, Elizabeth, Council Bluffs, Iowa Hanson, George E., Faribault, Minn. Hanson, Grace H., Austin, Tex. Hanson, Mrs. Josephine, Danville, Ky. Hanzlicek, Elizabeth, New York, N.Y. Hapala. Mrs. Marlene, Vancouver.

Wash. Harbison, Mrs. Bleecker M., Morganton, N.C.

Hard, Mrs. Lucy B., Chicago, Ill. Hardacker, Hazel, Rochester, N.Y. Harding, Mrs. Frieda, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

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N.C.

Harrison, Duane, Ogden, Utah. Harrison, Elizabeth, Fulton, Mo. Harrison, Lloyd A., Fulton, Mo. Hartl, William F., Devils Lake, N. Dak. Hartley, Mrs. Joes, Jackson, Miss. Hartwell, Mrs. Mildred E., West Hartford, Conn.

Hartwig, J. William, Columbus, Ohio Hartzog, Sister Julia Ann, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Harvey, Mrs. Martha L., Indianapolis, Ind.

Hassell, Jerry, Austin, Tex.

Hawkins, Mrs. Edythe V., Romney, W. Va. Hawkins, Glenn B., Romney, W. Va.

Hawkins, Glenn B., Romney, W. Va. Hawkins, Mrs. Ranier R., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Hayek, Allen, Gooding, Idaho Haynes, Harvey, Vancouver, Wash. Head, Mrs. Janet M., New York, N.Y. Healey, Aimee, Columbus, Ohio Healy, Mrs. Mabel, Buffalo, N.Y. Heatwole, Mrs. Helen A., Romney, W. Va.

Hehir, Richard, Buffalo, N.Y. Heidinger, Virginia A., White Plains,

N.Y. Heiner, Mrs. Frances, Ogden, Utah Heintschel, Barney O., Austin, Tex. Hellekson Ruth Berkeley Calif

Hellekson, Ruth, Berkeley, Calif. Helton, Richard, Indianapolis, Ind. Henchey, Agnes E., Pittsfield, Mass. Henderson, Mrs. Sara Cook, Washington, D.C.

ton, D.C. Hendricks, Evelyn, Romney, W. Va. Heney, Margaret E., White Plains, N.Y. Henon, Helen, Detroit, Mich. Henry, Mrs. Helen H., Knoxville, Tenn.

Hensley, Mrs. Cleta, Riverside, Calif. Hensley, Jack H., Austin, Tex. Hensley, Mrs. Norma L., Austin, Tex.

Herbert, Connie F., Riverside, Calif. Herlihy, Mary Susanne, Riverside, Calif.

Herndon, Mrs. Marguerite, Cave Spring, Ga.

Herrold, Mary Dallas, Romney, W. Va. Hersey, Mrs. Barbara, Berkeley, Calif. Hester, Dr. Marshall S., Santa Fe, N. Mex.

Hickman, Mrs. Pearl, Portland, Oreg. Hicks, Audrey, Houston, Tex. Hicks, Doin, Little Rock, Ark. Hiett, Nita J., Tueson, Ariz.

Higgins, Francis C., Washington, D.C. Higgins, Lamar H., Flint, Mich. Higgins, Leah, Detroit, Mich. High, Harold E., Raleigh, N.O.

Highland, Sister Mary Lois, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Highnote, Mrs. Emma Lee J., Cave Springs, Ga. Hilke, Mrs. Rosemary, Vancouver,

Wash. Hill, Mrs. Aline B., Knoxville, Tenn. Hill, Alvin J., Cave Spring, Ga. Hill, Mrs. Delores Y., Raleigh, N.C. Hill, Mrs. Edith M., Washington, D.C. Hill, Mrs. Marie L., West Hartford, Conn.

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Mont. Hoag, Sister Mary Linus, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Hoag, Ralph, Tucson, Ariz.

Hobart, Marvel C., Delavan, Wis.
Hobbs, Mrs. Jane, Spartanburg, S.C.
Hodge, Mrs. Hennie P., Raleigh, N.C.
Hodges, Mrs. Gertrude, Olathe, Kans.
Hodnik, Joseph, Olathe, Kans.
Hodock, Irene, Indianapolis, Ind.
Hodson, Hazel E., Los Angeles, Calif.
Hodson, Mrs. Margery B., Vancouver,
British Columbia.

Hoff, Joel R., Indianapolis, Ind. Hoffman, Loretta, Minneapolis, Minn. Hoffmeister, Alfred J., West Hartford, Conn.

Hoffmeyer, Ben E., Morganton, N.C. Hoffmeyer, Claude B., Danville, Ky. Hoffmeyer, Mrs. Vera B., Morganton, N.C.

Hofsteater, Howard T., Jacksonville, Ill. Hofsteater, Mrs. Marie M., Jackson-

ville, Ill.

Hogue, Sister Peter Damian, S.C., Pitts-

burgh, Pa.
Hoke, Dick P., Delavan, Wis.

Holcomb, Mrs. Marjoriebelle, Knoxville, Tenn.

Holcomb, Roy K., Knoxville, Tenn. Hollamby, Mrs. Harriet R., St. Augustine, Fla.

Holland, Bernice E., Flint, Mich. Holley, Minnie C., Romney, W. Va. Holliday, Milford W., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Hollingsworth, Vivian S., Morganton, N.C.

Holloman, Mrs. Evelyn, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Holmes, Mrs. Margaret, Vancouver, Wash.

Holste, Herman, Detroit, Mich. Holt, Alice M., Spokane, Wash. Holt, Mrs. Geraldyne, St. Louis, Mo.

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Homfeld, Mrs. Shirley, Long Beach, Calif. Honeychuck, Sister Frances Louise,

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Horvath, Mrs. Judith, White Plains, N.Y.

Houchin, Mildred C., Frederick, Md. Houchins, Mrs. Josephine, Staunton, Va.

Hourihan, Kathleen, Newark, N.J. Houser, Mrs. Louise K., Cave Spring,

Houston, Mrs. T. E., Birmingham, Ala. Howard, Helen W., Cleveland, Ohio Howard, Mrs. Lols S., Talladega, Ala. Howarth, Mrs. Elizabeth, Vancouver, Wash.

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Ga.
Hummel, Alice, New York, N.Y.
Hunt, Aleen, Salt Lake City, Utah
Hunt, Mrs. Norene D., Sulphur, Okla.
Huntington, Mrs. Lois, Rome, N.Y.
Hunziker, Mrs. Aletha J., St. Augustine,

Fla.
Hunziker, Byron E., St. Augustine, Fla.
Hurd, Uel, Olathe, Kans.
Hurley, Georgia R., White Plains, N.Y.
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Hyman, Mrs. Shirley, Hampton, Va.
Igleheart, Mrs. Betty, Vancouver, Wash.
Igleheart, Elliott H., Vancouver, Wash.
Iles, Mrs. Ruth M., Newark, N.J.
Imboden, Mrs. Jean C., Jacksonville,

Ingle, Mrs. Mary Hughes, Indianapolis, Ind.

Irgens, Mrs. Betty, Devils Lake, N. Dak. Irgens, Henning, Devils Lake, N. Dak. Irwin, Mrs. Jim C., Cave Spring, Ga. Isaacs, Ruth, Council Bluffs, Iowa Israel, Florence, Cave Spring, Ga. Jackson, Eileen, Berkeley, Calif.

Jackson, Mrs. Helen, Baton Rouge, La. Jackson, Mary Ellen, Detroit, Mich. Jackson, Robert H., Washington, D.C. Jacobs, Mrs. Carol P., New York, N.Y. Jacobs, John T., Austin, Tex. Jacobs, Leo, Berkeley, Calif. Jacobs, Mrs. Mabel, Detroit, Mich. Jacobson, Casper, Columbus, Ohio Jacobson, Elizabeth, Mill Neck, Long Island, N.Y. Jacobson, Mrs. Oleta, Columbus, Ohio

Jahr, Elaine, Detroit, Mich. James, Mrs. Gillian, Vancouver, British Columbia

Jane, Burnett, Cave Spring, Ga. Janet, Sister Mary, University City, Mo. Jarvis, Mae T., Portland, Oreg. Jayne, Gladys, Knoxville, Tenn. Jeanne, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph,

Jeanne, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolp Mass.

Jefferies, Mrs. Kathryn, Frederick, Md. Jenkins, Janet, Council Bluffs, Iowa Jennings, Albert, Little Rock, Ark. Jennings, Mrs. Opal, Council Bluffs, Iowa

Jensen, Donald, Ogden, Utah Jeter, Nan F., Morganton, N.C. Joanita, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

Joanna, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

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Johnson, Mrs. Marion P., West Hartford, Conn.

Johnson, William A., Jacksonville, Ill. Johnston, Mrs. Bower L., Jackson, Miss. Johnston, Mrs. Gwen A., Toronto, Ontario

Johnston, Mrs. Ura Mae, Little Rock, Ark.

Joiner, Allie, Santa Fe, N. Mex.
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Jones, Earl W., Flint 2, Mich.
Jones, Mrs. Elizabeth, Fulton, Mo.
Jones, Mrs. Evelyn, Knoxville, Tenn.
Jones, Gregory W., New York, N.Y.
Jones, Kate-Helen, Newark, N.J.
Jones, Mrs. Lillian R., Baton Rouge, La.
Jones, Mrs. Marjorie, Fulton, Mo.
Jones, Mrs. Mary E., Cave Spring, Ga.
Jones, Richard M., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

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Kaufmann, Mrs. Margaret A., Jacksonville. Ill.

Kaufmann, William R., Jacksonville,

Keating, Mrs. Edith W., Jacksonville,

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Kelly, Robert E., White Plains, N.Y. Kelly, Mrs. Sally L., Riverside, Calif. Kelsey, Mrs. Martha L., Delavan, Wis Kenefick, Sara Ellen, Carmichael, Calif. Kennard, Mrs. Marie S., Cave Spring,

Kennedy, D. E. Belleville, Ontario Kennedy, Betty, Austin, Tex. Kennedy, Mrs. Elaine K., Rochester,

Kennedy, Eloise, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Kennedy, Everett J., Columbus, Ohio. Kennedy, Mrs. Malvine, Indianapolis,

Kennedy, Mrs. Mildred, Portland, Oreg. Kennedy, Paul T., White Plains, N.Y. Kennedy, Robert, Indianapolis, Ind. Kent, Margaret S., Frederick, Md. Kern, Joann, Detroit, Mich. Kerr, Bryce, Fulton, Mo. Kerr, Mrs. Edna M., St. Augustine, Fla. Kerr, Thomas, Spartanburg, S.C. Kesert, Mrs. Edith, Berkeley, Calif. Kesling, Doris, Staunton, Va. Kessler, Mrs. Evelyn, Staunton, Va. Kiehne, Albert H., White Plains, N.Y. Kilcoyne, Catherine, Olathe, Kans.

Killorin, Mrs. Mary Adelaide, Rochester, N.Y. Kimbro, Katti Ki, Little Rock, Ark. Kincaid, Wilma S., Sulphur, Okla. King, Mrs. Dorothy, Knoxville, Tenn. King, Mrs. Dorothy H., Austin, Tex. King, Mrs. Jane T., St. Augustine, Fla. King, Mrs. Nelle, Romney, W. Va.

Killebrew, Mrs. Louise, Danville, Ky.

Joyce, Sister M. Scholastica, S.C., Pitts-burgh, Pa. King, Willa Mae, Berkeley, Calif. King, Mrs. Wilma, Wichita Falls, Tex. Kingsolver, Mrs. Lucille, Colorado Springs, Colo. Kirby, Mrs. Carole D., Austin, Tex. Kirk, Louise, Columbus, Ohio.

Kirkham, Mary Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

Kirkley, James R., Colorado Springs, Colo. Kirkley, Mrs. Lucille D., Colorado

Springs, Colo. Kirkpatrick, Mrs. Mildred B., Sulphur. Okla.

Kirksey, Mrs. Mary H., Morganton, N.C. Kiser, Ralph, Staunton, Va.

Kiser, Mrs. Vanita, Oshkosh, Wis. Kitchen, Patricia A., Riverside, Calif. Klein, Dr. John A., Detroit, Mich.

Klein, Mrs. Mildred, Sioux Falls, S. Dak. Kline, Mrs. Lorraine F., Jacksonville,

111. Knight, Mrs. Octavia B., Hampton, Va. Knochenmus, Mrs. Reana, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.

Knoderer, Mrs. Emily, Compton, Calif. Knowles, Mrs. Inez B., St. Augustine, Fla.

Koester, Mrs. Miriam, Gooding, Idaho Kolander, Raymond G., Omaha, Nebr. Konno, Irja K., Washington, D.C. Kontak, Mary, Mill Neck, Long Island, N.Y.

Koob, Ethel, Indianapolis, Ind. Kopas, Joseph T., Delavan, Wis. Kopp, Mrs. Harriet Green, Detroit, Mich.

Korr, Mrs. Florence, New York, N.Y. Koupas. Katherine E., Vancouver. Wash.

Kowalewski, Felix A., Riverside, Calif. Kowalewski, Mrs. Laura E., Riverside, Calif.

Koziar, Mrs. Anna, Fulton, Mo. Koziar, Stephen, Fulton, Mo. Kraft, Mrs. Dorothy, New York, N.Y. Kraft, Frances, Roxbury, Mass. Krallman, Esther, St. Louis, Mo. Kramer, Jan, White Plains, N.Y. Krehbiel, Mrs. Gertrude, Olathe, Kans. Kress, Mrs. Eunice D., St. Augustine, Fla.

Kritz, Kenneth, Frederick, Md. Krohn, Mrs. Emmylou, Council Bluffs,

Krowchenko, Rhoda, Vancouver, British Columbia

Kruemmer, Edward H., Austin, Tex. Krug, Dr. Richard F., Dallas, Tex. Kubis, John, Washington, D.C. Kubotsu, Teruko, Riverside, Calif. Kukleski, Audrian, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Kull, Mrs. Carol S., White Plains, N.Y. Kuni, Mrs. Roberta, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.

Centre, N.Y. Kurtz, Mrs. Clara, Fulton, Mo. Kusher, Mrs. Doris, Detroit, Mich. Ladner, Emil, Berkeley, Calif. Ladner, Mrs. Mary, Berkeley, Calif. LaFountaine, Lewis C., Columbus, Ohio Lahn, Nathan, Council Bluffs, Iowa Lamb, Alfred J., Indianapolis, Ind. Lamb, Gladys E., West Hartford, Conn. Lambert, Pearl C., Columbus, Ohio Landesberg, Mrs. Rae, Detroit, Mich. Lane, Kenneth R., Vancouver, Wash. Lane, Richard K., St. Augustine, Fla. Lang, George M., White Plains, N.Y. Lange, Keith, Salem, Oreg. Lange, Robert W., Knoxville, Tenn. Langley, Mrs. Mazine, Kansas City, Mo. Lanham, Mrs. Isabel, Fulton, Mo. Lankford, Mrs. Sibyl R., Austin, Tex. Laramie, Mrs. Dora, Ogden, Utah Larkin, Patrick, Washington, D.C. Larsen, Harold C., Indianapolis, Ind. Larsen, Mrs. Martha C., Indianapolis, Ind.

Larson, Herbert W., Delavan, Wis. Larson, Mrs. Nell R., Jacksonville, Ill. Larsson, G. George, Roxbury, Mass. LaRue, Mrs. Mary, Washington, D.C. Latham, Gladys, Cave Spring, Ga. Latimore, Mrs. Julia B., Cave Spring,

Ga.

Laufer, Mrs. Hazel, Rome, N.Y. Laurand, Sister M., C.S.J., Randolph,

Laurent, Michel, Council Bluffs, Iowa Laurentine, Sister, University City, Mo. Lauritsen, Mrs. LaReine, Faribault, Minn.

Lauritsen, Wesley, Faribault, Minn. Laustrup, Margaret E., Omaha, Nebr. Lavin, Mary, Vancouver, British Colum-

Lavos, George, Flint, Mich. Law, Mrs. Jennie, Morganton, N.C. Law, Mrs. Margaret, Romney, W. Va. Pittsburgh, Pa.

Lawless, Patrick J., Vancouver, Wash. Lawson, Mrs. Betty. Knoxville. Tenn. Lazzaro, Mrs. Virginia M., Omaha, Lowery, Mrs. Barbara K., Roxbury, Nebr.

Leard, Archibald F., Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

Leavitt, Gaile, Berkeley, Calif. Lee, Louise C., Edgewood, Pittsburgh,

Lee, Mrs. Naomi S., Berkeley, Calif. Lee, Russell, Jackson, Miss. Lee, Mrs. Virginia, Carmichael, Calif.

Leedy, Maxine, Flint, Mich. Leenhouts, Mrs. Mildred K., Berkeley,

Leenhouts, Myron A., Berkeley, Calif. LeFeaux, Mrs. Dorothy, Baton Rouge,

Leman, Charles W., Flint, Mich.

Kunken, Mrs. Naomi S., Rockville Lennan, Robert K., Riverside, Calif. Lenth, Joseph W., Jacksonville, Ill. Leon, Russell E., Phoenix, Ariz. Leonard, Sister David Mary, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Leonard, Julian B., Morganton, N.C. Lerch, Mrs. Isabelle B., Tucson, Ariz. Lesesne, Mrs. Ruth R., Austin, Tex. Leslie, Mrs. Adriene, New York, N.Y. Lewellyn, T. C., Staunton, Va. Lewis, Mrs. Helen, Staunton, Va. Lewis, Lucy A., Riverside, Calif. Lewis, Mrs. Marie B., Cleveland, Ohio Lewis, Robert O., Sulphur, Okla. Lewis, Sandra, Council Bluffs, Iowa Lidstrand, Mrs. Idah Kathryn, Omaha, Nebr.

Lietke, Mrs. Emily, Detroit, Mich. Linden, Dorothy, Ogden, Utah Lindholm, Toivo A., Riverside, Calif. Lindstrand, Mrs. Harriet, Salem, Oreg. Lindstrom, Evelyn, Gooding, Idaho Linzey, Robert, Staunton, Va. Litchfield, Darrel W., Salem, Oreg. Litchfield, Kendall D., White Plains,

N.Y. Little, James, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Little, Sister M. Angelica, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa. Lloyd, Glenn, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Lloyd, Marie, Vancouver, Wash. Loe, Elva F., Washington, D.C.

Lokatz, Rosamond, New York, N.Y. Long, Mrs. Florence, Romney, W. Va. Lorand, Mrs. Regula, Indianapolis, Ind.

Lorene, Sister James, University City, Mo.

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Loughran, Rosalin D., Riverside, Calif. Louise, Sister M. Margaret, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

Love, Mrs. Sara, Staunton, Va. Lawler, Mrs. Florence H., Edgewood, Lowe, Mrs. Catharine, White Plains, N.Y

Lowell, Dr. Edgar L., Los Angeles, Calif.

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Mass. Lowman, Rex. Washington, D.C. Lucht, Mrs. Karen, Rome, N.Y.

Ludovico, Mrs. Ruth D., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa. Ludwig, Mrs. Warrene, Dallas, Tex. Luebke, Melvin, Mill Neck, Long Is-

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Lusk, Alice, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Lutz, Martha, Fulton, Mo. Lyas, Mrs. Esther, Hampton, Va. Lyman, Lois, Minneapolis, Minn. Lynam, Elizabeth, New York, N.Y.

Lynch, Mrs. Irene, Indianapolis, Ind.

Lyon, Victor, Great Falls, Mont. Lyons, James, Brattleboro, Vt. MacAulay, Mrs. Dorothy M., Rochester, N.Y.

MacDonald, Dr. C. E., Vancouver, Brit-

ish Columbia.
MacDonald, Nellie V., Oshawa, Ontario.
MacEachern, Mrs. Irma, Detroit, Mich.
Mackey, Joan, Vancouver, Wash.
MacLeod, Mrs. Juanita, Cave Spring,
Ga.

McAdams, Robert M., Morganton, N.C. McAfee, Sister Mary Ann, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

McArtor, Sheldon E., Berkeley, Calif. McBride, E. A., Talladega, Ala. McBride, Mrs. Mary, Eldgewood, Pitts-

burgh, Pa.
McCabe, Mrs. Lora T., New York, N.Y.
McCain, Bertha, Colorado Springs,
Colo.

McCandless, Mrs. Ella B., Jackson, Miss.

McCarthy, Mrs. Jeanne T., Waltham, Mass.

McCauley, Elizabeth M., Roxbury, Mass. McClean, Edna, Prineville, Oreg.

McClanahan, Mrs. Rosalie, Fulton, Mo. McCleese, Cecil, Hampton, Va. McClung, Mrs. Frances H., Danville,

McClung, Mrs. Frances H., Danville, Ky. McClure, Dr. William J., Indianapolis,

Ind. McCombs, Mrs. Mary C., Morganton,

N.C. McConnell, Eugene, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

McConnell, Mrs. Iva, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

McConnell, Mrs. Martha, Danville, Ky. McConnell, William, Austin, Tex. McCreight, Mrs. Anabelle, Morganton,

McCreight, John E., Morganton, N.C. McCullough, Mrs. Evelyn, Knoxville, Tenn

McDaniel, Mrs. Margaret, Los Angeles, Calif.

McDermott, Julie, Spartanburg, S.C. McDermott, Mrs. Myrtle, Cleveland, Ohio

McDonald, A. H., Montreal, Canada McDonald, Mrs. A. H., Montreal,

McDonald, Mrs. Dorothy, Fulton, Mo. McDonald, Mrs. Juanita L., Austin, Tex.

McDonald, Mrs. Mildred W., Baton Rouge, La.

McDougall, Mrs. Donna, Flint, Mich. McDowell, Floyd J., Great Falls, Mont. McDowell, Mrs. Viola, Great Falls, Mont.

McEvoy, Dorothy M., Riverside, Calif. McEvoy, Eleanor P., New York, N.Y. McFall, Mrs. Wilma, Little Rock, Ark. McGarry, David A., Riverside, Calif. McGarry, Mrs. Esther D., Riverside, Calif.

McGaughy, Mrs. Grace, St. Louis, Mo. McGill, Daniel, Austin, Tex. McGill, Mrs. Dorothy K., Vancouver,

Wash. McGill, John B., West Hartford, Conn. McGowan, Kathleen, Buffalo, N.Y. McGrory, Sister M., Florita, S.C., Pitts-

burgh, Pa.

McGuinness, Mrs. Ann P., Orlando, Fla. McIntosh, Mrs. Ruby C., Austin, Tex. McKenzie, Josephine, Birmingham, Ala. McKeon, Mrs. Ethel P., Salem, Oreg. McKeon, James J., Delavan, Wis. McKeon, Scott, Columbus, Ohio McKibben, Sue, Indianapolis, Ind. McKinley, Karen, Portland, Oreg. McKinnon, Mrs. Margaret F., Sulphur, Okla.

McLelland, Paul, Staunton, Va. McManamy, Mrs. Maurine, Council Bluffs, Iowa

McMichen, Viola, Cave Spring Ga. McMillan, Lois, Vancouver, Wash. McPherson, Mrs. Hazel, Fulton, Mo. McPherson, Mrs. LaPearl, Gooding, Idaho

McPherson, Mrs. Lillian Knoxville, Tenn.

McQueen, Mrs. Ruth, Salem, Oreg. McQuern, Leila, Indianapolis, Ind. McSwain, Mrs. Carol, Buffalo, N.Y. McVicker, Eugene, Washington, D.C. Mackin, James A., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

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Wash. Maddox, Maxie Clare, Olathe, Kans. Maddox, Mildred, Olathe, Kans.

Maddox, Mildred, Clathe, Kans.
Madison, Mrs. Jeanette A., Baltimore,
Md.
Madsen, Willard J., Washington, D.C.

Madsen, Willard J., Washington, D.C. Maez, Max, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Magill, Medford, Baton Rouge, La. Magness, James D., St. Augustine, Fla. Magoch, Vilma, Roxbury, Mass. Magoffin, Mrs. M. Virginia, Memphis,

Tenn.
Mahoney, Margaret M., New York, N.Y.
Mall, James L., Flint, Mich.

Mallow, Mrs. Wilda, Staunton, Va. Malloy, Mrs. Patsy D., Sulphur, Okla. Mancini, Mary, Buffalo, N.Y.

Mangan, Dr. Kenneth R., Jacksonville, Ill.

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Manker, Leo H., Santa Fe, N. Mex. Mannen, Grace, Detroit, Mich. Mantzke, Ella, Beverly, Mass. Marans, Mrs. Albert, Detroit, Mich. Marcellino, Michael, White Plains, N.Y. Marianna, Sister, University City, Minn. Marie, Sister Michael, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

Marie, Sister Rose, Buffalo, N.Y. Mariquita, Sister, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

Marjorie, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

Mark, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

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Marra, William, Olathe, Kans.

Marriner, Rebecca, Edgewood, Pitts-

burgh, Pa.

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Marshall, Carolyn, Spartanburg, S.C.
Marshall, Charles C., Jacksonville, Ill.
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Ky.

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Mass.
Mary, Sister Brigid, Buffalo, N.Y.
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Massman, Beatrice, Buffalo, N.Y.
Masucci, Alex V., Olathe, Kans.
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Mathews, Mrs. Betty C., Jacksonville,
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Minihan, Helen R., New York, N.Y.
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La.

Minor, Mrs. Mary, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Minto, Henry, Vancouver, British Columbia

Mitchell Mrs Betty S Morganton

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Moore, Mrs. Nana, Tulsa, Okla.
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Moores, Donald F., Rochester, N.Y.
Mooring, Mrs. Dorothy P., Frederick,

P

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Moursund, Mrs. Geraldine B., Austin,

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Mow, Shanny, Stockton, Calif.
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Mudgett, Mrs. Grace, Jacksonville, Ill.
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Muldoon, Mary E., Roxbury, Mass.
Mulholland, Ann, Evanston, Ill.
Mulholland, Sister M. Leocadia, S.C.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Mullin, Francis W., Washington, D.C. Mundinger, Ada, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Murolo, Marco, Tucson, Ariz.
Murphy, Anna Mary, Tucson, Ariz.
Murphy, Fred, Olathe, Kans.
Murphy, Mrs. Joyce L., Sulphur, Okla.
Murray, John R., Colorado Springs,
Colo.

Murray, Mrs. Mildred F., St. Augustine, Fla.

Muse, Helen, Cave Spring, Ga.
Musmanno, Madeline F., Riverside,
Calif.

Mussey, Otis, Jr., Austin, Tex. Muyskens, Mrs. Thelma, Salem, Oreg. Myers, Helen, Berkeley, Calif. Myers, Mrs. Thelma M., Baton Rouge, La.

Myklebust, Arthur S., Sioux Falls, S. Dak.

Nass, David A., Omaha, Nebr.
Nassar, Mrs. Christine, Flint, Mich.
Neal, Ermine, Rome, N.Y.
Neesam, Ralph, Berkeley, Calif.
Nelson, Mrs. Helen M., Edgewood,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Pittsburgh, Pa.
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Nelson, Jayne, Minneapolis, Minn.
Nelson, Karen, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
Nelson, Mrs. Louise B., Raleigh, N.C.
Nerhus, Nelly, Olathe, Kans.
Ness, Agnes Dick, New York, N.Y.
Netusil, Anton, Council Bluffs, Iowa
Neuman, Donald A., Tucson, Ariz.
Newbrough, Betty, Berkeley, Calif.
Newby, Bernice D., New York, N.Y.
Newcomb, Waldo B., Jr., Austin, Tex.
Newkirk, June E., Tucson, Ariz.

Newsome, Mrs. Donna, Knoxville, Tenn. Newton, S. A., Cave Spring, Ga. Nichols, Alice, Rome, N.Y. Nichols, Mrs. Martha C., Tulsa, Okla. Nicolai, Richard, Little Rock, Ark. Niemi, Mrs. Mildred, Vancouver, Wash. Niller, Kersti, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

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Pittsburgh, Pa. Nomeland, Emery T., Romney, W. Va. Nomeland, Ronald, Washington, D.C. Norris, Mrs. Della H., Washington, D.C. Norton, Helen R., Washington, D.C. Norton, Kenneth W., Sulphur, Okla. Nortz, Naomi, Vancouver, Wash. Norwood, Malcolm J., Romney, W. Va. Noyes, Mrs. H. B., Newark, N.J. Nugent, Nicholas J., Rochester, N.Y. Numbers, Mary C., Northampton, Mass. Nunnelley, Josephine, Danville, Ky. Nutt, Mrs. Dymples, Detroit, Mich. Nutt, Mrs. Emogene, Little Rock, Ark. Nutt, Houston, Little Rock, Ark. Nycum, Mrs. Mattie M., Austin, Tex. Nye, Mrs. Marinda, Devils Lake, N. Dak. Nyman, Betty Lou, West Hartford, Conn.

O'Brien, Florence, New York, N.Y. Ockay, Mrs. Margaret, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

O'Connor, Dr. Clarence D., New York, N.Y.

O'Connor, Mrs. Helen, New York, N.Y. O'Donnell, Helen, Scranton, Pa. Oehler, Hannah, Edgewood, Pittsburgh.

Oehler, Phoebe, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Offutt, Elizabeth, Indianapolis, Ind.
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Oblinger, Betty P., Santa Fe, N. Mex.
Oja, Norman L., St. Augustine, Fla.
Olanoff, Mrs. Rose S., Philadelphia, Pa.
Olmstead, Mrs. Pauline, New York, N.Y.
Olsen, Jean, Flint, Mich.
Olson, Christine, St. Augustine, Fla.
Olson, Mrs. Goldie J., Minneapolis,

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Olson, John R., Austin, Tex.
Olson, Josephine, St. Augustine, Fla.
Olson, LeAnn, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
Olson, Mrs. Marny W., Austin, Tex.
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O'Neal, Mrs. Gayle, Dallas, Tex.
O'Neill, Florence, Rome, N.Y.
O'Neill, Marlyn, Berkeley, Calif.
O'Neill, Veronica, New York, N.Y.
Orenbaum, Ruth, Austin, Tex.
Orman, Mrs. Doris B., Jacksonville,

Newbrough, Betty, Berkeley, Calif.
Newby, Bernice D., New York, N.Y.
Newcomb, Waldo B., Jr., Austin, Tex.
Newkirk, June E., Tucson, Ariz.
Newman, Lawrence R., Riverside, Calif.
Newman, Lawrence R., Riverside, Calif.

Osborne, Mrs. Margaret, Council Bluffs, Iowa Osburn, Nona, Minneapolis, Minn. O'Shea, Rev. John T., Buffalo, N.Y. Ostapowicz, Terese, Edgewood, Pitts-

burgh, Pa.

Ostern, Beatrice, New York, N.Y. Oswald, Sister Mary, C.S.J., Randolph, Mass

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Minn.
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Parks, Lloyd R., Olathe, Kans.
Parks, Ray, Staunton, Va.
Parks, Mrs. Roy G., Little Rock, Ark.
Parks, Roy G., Little Rock, Ark.
Parrish, Horace, Cave Spring, Ga.
Parson, Venetia C., New York, N.Y.
Partridge, Margaret J., West Hartford Conv.

ford, Conn.

Pascaretta, Sister Marie Gerard, S. C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Pascoe, William, Gustine, Calif. Patricia, Sister M. Grace, C. S. J., Randolph, Mass.

Patrie, Stanley, Rochester, N.Y. Patten, Helen T., Beverly, Mass. Patterson, Dorothy, Olathe, Kans. Patterson, Mrs. Edith C., Devils Lak

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Patterson, Margaret, Omaha, Nebr. Patton, John S., Baton Rouge, La. Patton, Livingston, West Hartford, Conn.

Conn.
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Patton, Mrs. Mary G., Morganton, N.C.
Patton, Roy K., Talladega, Ala.
Paul, Jeanne M., Riverside, Calif.
Pauline, Sister, Buffalo, N.Y.
Paulos, Mary A., Los Angeles, Calif.
Paulsen, Kristine, New York, N.Y.
Paxson, Grace E., Riverside, Calif.
Paxton, Fannie, Staunton, Va.
Payne, Gail, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
Payne, Mrs. Lucy, Fulton, Mo.

Peacock, Leonard J., Delavan, Wis. Pearce, Jane, New York, N.Y. Pearce, Mrs. Mary F., Tucson, Ariz. Pearce, Virginia, Staunton, Va. Pearre, Charles Emmet, Fulton, Mo. Pearson, Edward, Hampton, Va. Pearson, Ervin G., Washington, D.C. Pearson, Paul E., Colorado Springs,

Pearson, Ervin G., Washington, D.C. Pearson, Paul E., Colorado Springs Colo. Peasly, Currico L., Porterville, Calif.

Peck, Billy J., Salem, Oreg.
Peevy, Mrs. Vivian T., Austin, Tex.
Peffer, Patricia, New York, N.Y.
Pellicci, Luzio, White Plains, N.Y.
Pelser, Ann K., West Hartford, Conn.
Pemberton, Mrs. Cecilia, Wichita,

Kans.
Pemberton, Mrs. Elaine, Little Rock,
Ark.

Pemberton, Freddie, Cave Spring, Ga. Pence, Mrs. Josephine M., Danville, Ky. Pendell, Mrs. Lucille H., Washington, D.C.

Pepe, Joseph, Riverside, Calif. Perdue, Mrs. Catherine, Spartanburg, S.C.

Perdue, Eugene, Spartanburg, S.C. Peters, William C., Riverside, Calif. Peterson, Dale I., Omaha, Nebr. Peterson, Mrs. Inez L., Omaha, Nebr. Peterson, John S., Los Angeles, Calif. Peterson, Martha, Faribault, Minn. Peterson, Mathilda, Faribault, Minn. Peterson, Paul C., West Hartford, Conn.

Peterson, Mrs. Rosamond H., Rochester, N.Y.

Petteys, Mrs. Elizabeth, Faribault, Minn. Petty, Mrs. Phyllis T., Spartanburg,

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Phillips, Ben S., Baton Rouge, La. Phillips, Betty Lou, White Plains, N.Y. Phillips, Mrs. Elsie, Spartanburg, S.C. Phillips, Frances I., Washington, D.C. Phillips, Richard M., Washington, D.C. Phillips, Mrs. Suzanne B., White Plains, N.Y.

Pickell, Herbert, Staunton, Va. Pierce, Billie, Salem, Oreg. Pihlstrom, Mrs. Eunice, Minneapolis,

Minn.
Pilling, Mrs. Ruth, Omaha, Nebr.
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Pimentel, Mrs. Sally, Porterville, Calif.
Pirtle, Mrs. Beth W., Austin, Tex.
Piskos, James, Indianapolis, Ind.
Piskos, Mrs. Pauline, Indianapolis, Ind.
Plaster, Mrs. Marguerite, Morganton,

N.C. Plummer, Richard L., Riverside, Calif. Ra Ra Ra Ra

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Posey, Mrs. Annie, Spartanburg, S.C. Posey, Edward E., Austin, Tex. Poss, Bert, Austin, Tex. Potter, James N., Morganton, N.C. Potts, Hilda, Austin, Tex. Poulos, Thomas H., Flint, Mich. Powell, Frank W., Colorado Springs, Colo. Powell, Mary Gilbert, Spartanburg, Prall, Josephine, Spartanburg, S.C. Pratt, Mrs. Inez E., Baton Rouge, La. Prichard, Doris, St. Augustine, Fla. Priebe, Wesley E., Tucson, Ariz. Priest, Edward, Rome, N.Y. Prigg, Mrs. Elizabeth, Portland, Oreg. Propp, George, Omaha, Nebr. Pruff, Mrs. Dorothy, Berkeley, Calif. Pugh, Bessie, Wichita, Kans. Pulley, Martha E., Oklahoma City, Okla. Purcell, Edythe F., Berkeley, Calif. Purdy. Mrs. Helen, Council Bluffs, Iowa Quick, Marian, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa. Quigley, Dr. Howard M., Faribault, Minn. Quigley, Stephen P., Washington, D.C. Quinn, Mrs. LeVere S., Riverside, Calif. Quinn, Mrs. Marguerite, Frederick, Md. Quinn, Sarah E., Frederick, Md. Rader, Mrs. Ardeth, Wichita, Kans. Rafferty, L. Dwight, Devils Lake, N. Raffo, Gloria, New York, N.Y. Ragland, Mildred, St. Augustine, Fla. Rahmlow, Howard H., Riverside, Calif. Railing, Samuel M., Rochester, N.Y. Rakow, Jules P., West Hartford, Conn. Rakow, Mrs. Lillian G., West Hartford, Conn. Ramger, Mrs. Catherine, Berkeley, Calif. Ramger, Harold, Berkeley, Calif. Randall, James, Baton Rouge, La. Randall, Laurence, Knoxville, Tenn. Randall, Mrs. Patricia G., Cave Spring, Randall, Mrs. Peggy, Baton Rouge, La. Raneses, Mrs. Agapita, Council Bluffs, Iowa Rankin, Ada, Great Falls, Mont. Rankin, Carl E., Washington, D.C. Rankin, Linnie, Salem, Oreg. Ransdell, William E., Delavan, Wis. Ratai, J. E. Harold, Edmonton, Alberta Ravell, Donald L., Faribault, Minn. Ravn, Alden C., Jacksonville, Ill.

Pomeroy, Mrs. R. A., Seattle, Wash.

Pope, A. W., St. Augustine, Fla.

Porter, Dean, Olathe, Kans.

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n, if. Poole, Mrs. Norma C., Faribault, Minn.

Poppink, Mrs. Rhea N., Rochester, N.Y.

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Rucker, Thomas H., Jr., Austin, Tex. Ruebel, Mrs. Meribah, Council Bluffs.

Ruhl, Benjamin, Baton Rouge, La. Rumann, Donald J., St. Augustine, Fla. Rupert, Mrs. Joan, Gooding, Idaho Rupert, Stanford, Gooding, Idaho Russel, Mrs. Jerry, Tucson, Ariz. Russel, Mary Scott, Tucson, Ariz. Russell, Mrs. Florence H., St. Louis,

Ryan, Genevieve M., New York, N.Y. Ryan, Mrs. Kathleen, Buffalo, N.Y. Rybak, John, Buffalo, N.Y. Salem, James, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Samoore, Mrs. Rhoda O., Jacksonville,

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Scarvie, Norman, Council Bluffs, Iowa Schatz, Mrs. Virginia, Edgewood, Pitts-

Schein, Jerome D., Washington, D.C. Schell, Barbara, Great Falls, Mont. Schild, Mrs. Adelaide, Salem, Oreg. Schmidt, Charlotte, St. Louis, Mo. Schmitt, Loraine M., Colorado Springs, Colo.

Schoenfeld, Jane, Salt Lake City, Utah Schoppert, Thelma, Frederick, Md. Schowe, Ben, Jr., Columbus, Ohio Schroeder, Mary Jo, Washington, D.C. Schulte, Sally, Jacksonville, Ill.

Schulze, Mrs. Gaynelle B., Austin, Tex. Schuman, Mrs. Connie, Riverside, Calif. Schuman, Mrs. Priscilla, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

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Schunhoff, Dr. Hugo F., Berkeley, Calif. Schwartz, Mrs. Tina F., Park Forest,

Schwarz, Otto, Columbus, Ohio. Scofield, Harry, Columbus, Ohio. Scott, Mrs. Elizabeth V., St. Augustine,

Scott, Mrs. Juanita H., Hampton, Va. Scott, Shirley, Ogden, Utah. Scouten, Edward L., Washington, D.C. Scouten, Mrs. Eleanor, Washington, D.C.

Scozzari, Salvatore, White Plains, N.Y. Scribner, Mrs. Marlys M., Morganton,

Scribner, Robert W., Morganton, N.C. Seal, Albert G., Baton Rouge, La. Seal, Mrs. Wilmah, Baton Rouge, La. Searight, Mary B., Austin, Tex. Sebrell, Mrs. Ruby, Staunton, Va. Sebrell, Thomas, Staunton, Va. Seeger, Julius P., Austin, Tex. Seeger, Mrs. Ruth M., Austin, Tex. Seegmiller, Mrs. Katherine, Ogden, Utah.

Seiz, Frances, Detroit, Mich. Sellner, Hubert J., Berkeley, Calif. Selner, Ruth Ann, Buffalo, N.Y. Senninger, Mrs. Barbara, Flint, Mich. Severance, Mrs. Dorothy, Gooding, Idaho.

Sewell, Mrs. Helen R., Austin, Tex. Sewell, Mrs. Ha S., Cave Springs, Ga. Sexton, Clinton C., Indianapolis, Ind. Shafer, Warren J., Columbus, Ohio. Shahan, Polly J., Washington, D.C. Shanholtz, Norman, Romney, W. Va. Shanholtzer, Mrs. Elfrieda, Romney, W. Va.

Shannon, Mrs. T. V., Jackson, Miss. Sharp, Mrs. Violet E., Cleveland, Ohio. Sheahan, Mary, New York, N.Y. Sheehan, Mrs. Alma, Staunton, W. Va. Shellgrain, Evelyn, Los Angeles, Calif. Shelnutt, Freeman, Cave Spring, Ga. Shenehon, Mrs. Patricia, Minneapolis, Minn.

Sheppard, Mrs. Sallie N., Morganton, N.C.

Sheridan, Donald, Salem, Oreg. Sheridan, Mrs. Helen, Salem, Oreg. Sherman, Mrs. Carole, Columbus, Ohio Sherrill, Wilson W., Morgantown, N.C. Sherwood, Cyril, Cereo, Calif. Shibley, Luther, Little Rock, Ark. Shinpaugh, Joe R., Staunton, Va.

Ga Shipman, Eldon E., Romney, W. Va.

Shipman, John, Baton Rouge, La. Shippey, Mrs. Janis, Austin, Tex. Shirley, Jacqueline A., Riverside, Calif. Shirley, Oscar W., West Hartford,

Short, Mrs. Harriet, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Shouse, William R., Jacksonville, Ill. Siders, Bruce R., Flint, Mich. Silverwood, Judith, Oshkosh, Wis. Simon, Mrs. Leota H., Omaha, Nebr. Simone, Sister Rose Cecelia, S.C.,

Pittsburgh, Pa.

Simpson, Camille, Morganton, N.C. Simpson, William M., Morganton, N.C. Sinclair, Mrs. Margaret, Salem, Oreg. Sinclair, Robert A., Vancouver, British Columbia

Singleton, J. S., Oakland, Calif. Singleton, Mrs. J. S., Oakland, Calif. Sinn, Mrs. Nyra E., Frederick, Md. Sipherd, Mrs. Christine J., Ceres, Calif. Sitte, Mrs. Edythe, Oshkosh, Wis. Sixta, Doris R., Omaha, Nebr. Skidmore, Mrs. Louise, Gooding, Idaho Skjold, Mrs. LaPreal, Gooding, Idaho Sladek, Frank E., Tucson, Ariz. Slater, Mrs. Eppie, Vancouver, Wash. Slater, Michael F., Jr., St. Augustine,

Sloan, Dean, Dearborn, Mich. Slover, Mrs. Helen H., Sulphur, Okla. Smallwood, Dorothy B., Riverside, Calif.

Smith, Mrs. Ada H., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Smith, Mrs. Adelaide, Council Bluffs,

Smith, Mrs. Alice W., Morganton, N.C. Smith, Mrs. Betty C., Morganton, N.C. Smith, Mrs. Beulah, Buffalo, N.Y.

Smith, Carl F., Devils Lake, N. Dak. Smith, Christopher G., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Smith, Mrs. Doris, Rome, N.Y.

Smith, Mrs. Elizabeth, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Smith, Mrs. Elizabeth W., Vancouver, Wash.

Smith, Mrs. Ernestine, Devils Lake,

Smith, Mrs. Folsom, Baton Rouge, La. Smith, Mrs. Helen. Lorain, Ohio Smith, Mrs. Helen N., Berkeley, Calif. Smith, Mrs. Ina J., Salem, Oreg.

Smith, Janice, Cleveland, Ohio

Smith, Jess M., Knoxville, Tenn. Smith, Mrs. Martha, Little Rock, Ark. Smith, Mrs. Maude, Spartanburg, S.C. Smith, Meredith Jane, Newark, N.J.

Smith, Myrtle R., Columbus, Ohio Smith, Oletha A., Raleigh, N.C. Smith, Mrs. Patsy, Knoxville, Tenn.

Shipley, Mrs. Carolyn M., Cave Spring, Smith, Mrs. Ruby, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Smith, Shirley, Knoxville, Tenn. Smith, Stanley F., Danville, Ky Smith, Walter F., Santa Fe, N. Mex. Snapp, Mrs. Cecelia A., Compton, Calif. Snider, Mrs. Maureen, Little Rock, Ark. Snodgrass, Bernard R., Columbus, Ohio Snow, Mrs. Priscilla, West Hartford,

Conn. Snyder, Mrs. Margaret, Flint, Mich. Solano, Mrs. Agnes, St. Augustine, Fla. Sommer, Clarence E., Faribault, Minn. Sommer, Mrs. Elizabeth, Faribault,

Minn. Sorrells, Elizabeth, Knoxville, Tenn. Sorrells, Gertrude, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Sowell, Mrs. Luda B., Riverside, Calif. Sparks, Fred L., Jr., Rome, N.Y. Sparks, Mrs. Hazelene, Rome, N.Y. Spear, Mrs. Erma H., Knoxville, Tenn. Spekin, Roberta, Roxbury, Mass. Spellman, John F., Providence, R.I. Spence, Mrs. Theresa A., Delavan, Wis. Spencer, Mrs. Martha, Columbus, Ohio Spengler, Mabel C., Rochester, N.Y. Sperling, Mrs. Myrna, Vancouver, Wash.

Sprague, Mrs. Beatrice P., Rochester, N.Y.

Spurrier, Mrs. Laura, Berkeley, Calif. Squire, Melvin, Jackson, Miss Srnka, John A., Berkeley, Calif. Stablem, Mrs. E., Los Angeles, Calif. Stabnow, Irving, Faribault, Minn. Stack, Archie G., Vancouver, Wash. Stack, Hugh L., Austin, Tex. Stack, Mrs. Laverne, Baton Rouge, La.

Stack, Luther, Baton Rouge, La. Stack, Sister Patricia Marie, S.C., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Staehle, Jack M., White Plains, N.Y. Stafford, Patricia, Los Angeles, Calif. Standley, C. Joseph, Jacksonville, Ill. Standley, Mrs. Mary S., Jacksonville,

Stanfill, Lester, Indianapolis, Ind. Stanislas, Sister M. St., C.S.J., Randolph, Mass. Stanley, Mrs. Irene, Edgewood, Pitts-

burgh, Pa.

Stansberry, David, Buffalo, N.Y. Stanton, Imelda, Memphis, Tenn. Stanton, John H., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Margaret, Edgewood, Stanton, Mrs. Pittsburgh, Pa.

Stark, James H., Jacksonville, Ill. Stark, Mrs. Martha I., Jacksonville, Ill. Starkovich, Paul, Vancouver, Wash. Starr, Anna, Ogden, Utah

Starrett, Mrs. Anne B., Morganton, N.C. Steege, Carol, Mill Neck, Long Island, N.Y.

Steffens, Mrs. Ethel, Detroit, Mich. Stegall, Ralph C., Ogden, Utah

D.C. Stelle, Roy Moore, Colorado Springs,

Colo

Stellwagen, Sharon, Detroit, Mich. Stennett, Mrs. Nadine, Carmichael.

Stenguist, Gertrude, Watertown, Mass. Stephens, Mrs. Gladys, Riverside, Calif. Stephenson, Mrs. Wanda, Staunton, Va. Stepp, Mrs. Geverna C., Cave Spring.

Stevens, Flora, Buffalo, N.Y.

Stevens, Mrs. Marguerite, Baton Rouge,

Stevens, William E., Washington, D.C. Stevenson, Mrs. Ruth E., Flint, Mich. Stevenson, Virginalee, Austin, Tex. Stewart, Mrs. Ellen P., Washington, D.C.

Stewart, Gayle, Rochester, N.Y. Stewart, Larry G., Jacksonville, Ill. Stine, Mrs. Blanche, Fulton, Mo. Stinnette, Mrs. Mary Ann, Knoxville,

Stockdale, Mrs. Lois P., St. Augustine, Stokesbary, Mrs. Jean, Vancouver,

Wash. Stoller, Iris, Mill Neck, Long Island,

N.Y. Stoltenberg, Doran H., Vancouver,

Wash. Stoltz, Mrs. Mary, Columbus, Ohio Stone, Mrs. Pauline M., Jackson, Miss. Stoner, Marguerite, Los Angeles, Calif. Stotts, Joe, Vancouver, Wash. Stout, Gail, Indianapolis, Ind. Stovall, Sadie, Beverly, Mass. Stratton, E. Page, Riverside, Calif. Stratton, Mrs. Virginia, Staunton, Va. Straub, Mrs. Eileen, New York, N.Y.

Streat, Mrs. Patricia B., Dearborn, Mich. Stricklin, Mrs. Christine, Berkeley, Calif.

Strieby, Mrs. Dorothy R., Delavan, Wis. Strieby, Edward L., Delavan, Wis. Strizver, Mrs. Nancy, West Hartford. Conn.

Strong, Ernest C., Talladega, Ala. Strong, Mrs. Mary Ann, Talladega, Ala. Struppler, Hazel, Faribault, Minn. Stuart, Mrs. Patricia L., Flint, Mich. Stuckless, Ross E., Edgewood, Pitts-

burgh, Pa. Sturdivant, Mrs. E. C., Jackson, Miss. Suam, Sue, Flint, Mich. Sueoka, Dorothy C., Washington, D.C.

Sullivan, Jane, Santa Fe. N. Mex. Sundstrom, Florence, Indianapolis, Ind.

Susi, Mrs. Maryalice, Columbus, Ohio Suter, Alice, Frederick, Md. Sutton, Mrs. Lee B., Knoxville, Tenn. Swaim, W. Dean, Frederick, Md.

Sweem, Mrs. Helen, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Stein, Mrs. Shirley P., Washington, Sword, Mrs. Ruth B., White Plains. N.Y.

Sydnor, Jacqueline, Hampton, Va. Szajna, Helen, Detroit, Mich.

Szopa, Mrs. Marie M., West Hartford, Conn.

Szuba, Jennie, Buffalo, N.Y. Tarins, Jack B., White Plains, N.Y. Tart, Mrs. Virginia W., St. Augustine, Fla.

Tate, Olen A., Talladega, Ala. Tate, Mrs. Rachel L., Jackson, Miss. Tate, Mrs. Violet, Baton Rouge, La. Taylor, Evelyn L., Knoxville, Tenn.

Taylor, Mrs. Frances A., Morganton, N.C. Taylor, James B., Morganton, N.C.

Taylor, Mrs. Jane R., Morganton, N.C. Taylor, Mrs. Jean, Salem, Oreg. Taylor, Jerry, Ogden, Utah

Taylor, John E., Salem, Oreg. Taylor, Leonard, Fulton, Mo.

Taylor, Mrs. Lucile M., Delavan, Wis. Taylor, Mrs. Margaret L., West Hartford, Conn.

Taylor, Mrs. Myra Jane, Compton, Calif. Taylor, Norman M., Columbus, Ohio Taylor, Velda Louise, Danville, Ky. Teaster, Perry H., Spartanburg, S.C. Teat, Mrs. Roselyn, Cave Spring, Ga. Tedeschi, Cora, Newark, N.J.

Teets, Royal, Salem, Oreg. Tegeder, Robert W., Ogden, Utah Teichert, Eckard, Council Bluffs, Iowa Teitelbaum, Bernard, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Tellam, Mrs. Joan C., Tucson, Ariz. TenBroeck, Catherine M., Berkeley, Calif

Tennis, Mrs. C. Ann, Berkeley, Calif. Tennis. Mrs. Donaldina, Riverside. Calif.

Terauds, Hugo, Santa Fe. N. Mex. Teresita, Sister M., C.S.J., Randolph, Mass.

Terry, Mrs. Marianna C., Rochester, N.Y.

Thatcher, Mrs. Isabelle, Ogden, Utah Theresia, Sister M., C.S.J., Randolph Mass.

Thetford, Mrs. Mamie M., Sulphur, Okla.

Theurer, Penelope, Birmingham, Ala. Thomas, Alyce E., Riverside, Calif. Thomas, Charles A., Danville, Ky. Thomas, Mrs. Elizabeth S., Columbus,

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Ohio Thomas, Mrs. Johnnie D., Sulphur, Okla.

Thomas, Mrs. Reba H., Talladege, Ala. Thomas, Mrs. Virginia L., Ceres, Calif. Thomason, Mrs. Katherine W., Morganton, N.C.

Thomason, Mrs. Minnie A., Knoxville Tenn.

Thompson, Mrs. Clara, Fairbault, Minn. Thompson, George H., Omaha, Neb.

Thompson, Mrs. Marion, Detroit, Mich. Thompson, Richard E., Beverly, Mass. Thomure, Eugene, Sioux Fall, S. Dak. Thoreson, Mrs. Margaret E., Vancouver, Wash. Thorn, Mrs. Ferol M., Jacksonville, Ill. Thornton, William A., Riverside, Calif. Thurber, Albert, Ogden, Utah Thweatt, Mary, Talladega, Ala. Thweatt, Troy, Talladega, Ala. Tibbetts, Eleanor, Washington, D.C. Tiberlo, Carmen S., Frederick, Md. Tillinghast, Dr. Edward W., Tuscon,

Timmons, Mary, Vancouver, British Columbia

Timney, Mrs. Irene, Tucson, Ariz. Tinley, Mrs. Helen, Council Bluffs,

Tinsmith, Ernest, White Plains, N.Y.
Tisdale, Hope, Austin, Tex.
Tittsworth, Laura, Berkeley, Calif.
Tollefson, Olaf, Salem, Oreg.
Toner, Helen A., Riverside, Calif.
Tower, Mrs. Janet, Indianapolis, Ind.
Townsley, John M., Jr., Sulphur, Okla.
Tracy, Elizabeth B., Rochester, N.Y.
Trambley, Mary M., New York, N.Y.
Trasko, Carolym M., West Hartford,
Conn.

Traylor, Mrs. Mabel I., Flint, Mich. Traylor, William C., Jacksonville, Ill. Trboyevich, Goldie, Washington, D.C. Tremaine, Harry, Jackson, Miss. Tremaine, Mrs. Mary F., Danville, Ky. Trenham, Mrs. Julia P., Berkeley, Calif. Trevarthen, Mrs. Marjorie, Vancouver, Wash.

Triebert, Mrs. Marjorie M., Morganton, N.C.

Triebert, Raymond F., West Hartford,

Ariz.

Conn.
Trott, Joan V., Edmonton, Alberta
Trubow, Mrs. Ruth, Detroit, Mich.
Trujillo, Lydio, Buffalo, N.Y.
Trukken, Elaine M., Omaha, Nebr.
Tubb, Lonnie, Little Rock, Ark.
Tubbs, Mrs. John I., Talladega, Ala.
Tuccinardi, Mrs. Norma, Vancouver,
Wash.

Tuccinardi, Richard R., Vancouver, Wash.

Tucker, Mrs. Genevieve, Gooding, Idaho Tully, Norman, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Turechek, Armin G., Riverside, Calif. Turechek, Mrs. Elsie B., Riverside, Calif.

Turley, Mrs. Eleanor, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Turner, Mrs. Catherine S., Raleigh, N.C. Turner, Lucile, Washington, D.C. Turner, Mrs. Mary P. Cave Spring, Ga. Turner, Mrs. Ruth, Spartanburg, S.C. Turpin, Mrs. Lorette G., New York, N.Y. Tuttle, Mrs. Lucile L., Los Angeles, Calif.

Tuttle, Mrs. Mary B., Morganton, N.C.

Thompson, Mrs. Marion, Detroit, Mich. Twomey, Mrs. Paulita, West Hartford, Thompson, Richard E., Beyerly, Mass.

Tyndale, Mrs. M. Elizabeth, Riverside, Calif.

Tyson, Mrs. Theresa D., Baton Rouge, La.

Uber, Mrs. Blanche, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Ullrich, Mrs. Elizabeth P., Danville, Ky. Ulmer, Mrs. Georgia, Salem, Oreg. Ulmer, Thomas A., Salem, Oreg. Underhill, Mrs. Kathleen P., Morgan-

ton, N.Ć. Underwood, Mrs. Lillian, Indianapolis, Ind.

Upshaw, C. Ruth, Austin, Tex. Urbanic, Mrs. Patricia, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Vader, Caroline, Omaha, Nebr. Valencia, Ray, Santa Fe., N. Mex. VanCott, Daniel M., Cave Spring, Ga. Varkados, Mrs. Despena, Vancouver, Wash.

Vassey, Mrs. Rebecca, Spartanburg, S.C.

Vaughan, Verdry D., Washington, D.C. Vaught, Mrs. Elizabeth B., Danville, Ky. Vernon, McCay, Riverside, Calif.

Virnig, JoAnn, Omaha, Nebr.
Vivian, Rose, Watertown, Mass.
Viviani, Caroline, Rochester, N.Y.
Vollette, Mrs. Gertrude E., Austin, Tex.
Vorce, Eleanor, New York, N.Y.
Waddy, Hugh, Staunton, Va.
Wade, Doris, Austin, Tex.

Wade, Mrs. Lorraine, Council Bluffs, Iowa

Wade, Sarah, Cave Spring. Ga.
Wagner, William H., Canton, Ohio
Wagstaff, Mildred E., Raleigh, N.C.
Wahl, Mrs. Allois W., Jacksonville, Ill.
Wahl, Howard P., Jacksonville, Ill.
Wahl, Lewis B., St. Louis, Mo.
Wait, Anne, Little Rock, Ark.
Wait, Eugene, Knoxville, Tenn.
Wait, Mark, Colorado Springs, Colo.
Walcher, Mrs. Joe B., Oklahoma City, Okla.
Waldorf, Mrs. Gladys, Portland, Oreg.

Walker, Mrs. Carease, Morganton, N.C.

Walker, Mrs. Elizabeth W., Morganton, N.C.

Walker, Isabelle, Danville, Ky. Walker, Newton F., Spartanburg, S.C. Walker, Rodger W., Austin, Tex. Walker, Mrs. Sallie, Knoxville, Tenn.

Walker, Mrs. Tucker J., Morganton, N.C.

Walker, Dr. William L., Spartanburg, S.C.

Wall, Mrs. Alice, Beverly, Mass. Wallace, John, St. Augustine, Fla. Wallis, Mrs. Milton H., Taladega, Ala. Walsh, Margaret Mary, New York, N.Y. Walter, Mrs. Marion D., Omaha, Nebr. Walter, Mrs. Vaughna, Omaha, Nebr. Walters, D. Wayne, Frederick, Md. Walton, Mrs. Ann B., Morganton, N.C. Wanat, Mrs. Mary, Buffalo, N.Y. Warber, Mrs. Jessie E., Morganton, N.C. Ward, Mrs. Erin, Knoxville, Tenn. Ward, Mrs. Mildred, Brattleboro, Vt. Ward, Sandra S., Riverside, Calif. Ward, Mrs. Sara Holt, Knoxville, Tenn. Ward, Virginia M., Danville, Ky. Ware, J. R., Cave Spring, Ga. Ware, Mrs. Sarah F., Cave Spring, Ga. Warren, Lawrence R., Baton Rouge, La. Warren, Mrs. Mozelle, Austin, Tex Wartenberg, Rudolf, Berkeley, Calif. Wassel, Mrs. Irene T. Los Angeles, Calif.

Wasell. Mrs. Irene T., Watertown, Mass.

Waters, Florence A., Washington, D.C. Watrous, Mrs. Elizabeth J., Morganton,

Watson, Mrs. Evelyn W., Morganton,

Watson, Mrs. Spivey, Cleveland, Ohio. Watts, Mrs. Jo D., Spokane, Wash. Mrs. Jane, Waugaman, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Wayt, Mrs. Julia H., Morganton, N.C. Weaver, Alma R., Talladega, Ala. Weaver, Mrs. Edith, Staunton, Va. Weaver, Madeline M., Rochester, N.Y. Weber, Arlene C., Jacksonville, Ill. Weber, George V., Vancouver, British Columbia.

Wehr, Mrs. Janice, Columbus, Ohio. Weidner, Eunice, Mill Neck, Long Island, N.Y.

Weinberg, Sara R., Riverside, Calif. Weld, Rev. E. A., Greenwich, Conn. Welling, Mrs. Jean, Ogden, Utah. Wells, Charles, Flint, Mich. Wells, Mrs. Opal, Edgewood, Pittsburgh,

Wenger, Mrs. Noelle, Columbus, Ohio Wenrich, Mrs. Joan, Rome, N.Y. Werner, Dawayne, Staunton, Va. West, Mrs. Angeleen, Austin, Tex. Westervelt, Margaret, Columbus, Ohio Westling, Tyra Melvia, Tacoma, Wash. Wetzel, Eleanor, Washington, D.C. Wheeler, Harold, Salem, Oreg. Wheeler, Mrs. Leota, Columbus, Ohio Wheeler, Mrs. Leslie M., Baton Rouge,

La. Whisman, Charley, Indianapolis, Ind. Whitaker, Mrs. Frances D., Raleigh,

N.C. White, Mrs. Agnes, Danville, Ky. White, Cary, St. Augustine, Fla. White, Mrs. Catherine J., Vaucouver,

Wash. White, Mrs. Frances M., Austin, Tex.

White, Henry L., St. Augustine, Fla. White, Mrs. Marianna N., Washington, White, Maurice M., Vancouver, Wash. White, Ralph H., Austin, Tex. White, Mrs. Rosalie, St. Augustine,

RIM White, Mrs. Vivian B., Jackson, Miss.

Whitecotton, Charlie, Austin, Tex. Whiteside, Madeline C., Vancouver, British Columbia Whitesides, Virginia, Devils Lake,

N. Dak. Whitley, Mrs. Sarah W., Morganton, N.C.

Whitlock, Mrs. Corrie Jean, Spartanburg, S.C.

Whitworth, Jimmy H., Cave Spring,

Wholey, Mrs. Janice E., West Hartford, Conn. Wieland, Sister Rose Gonzaga, S.C.,

Pittsburgh, Pa. Wierk, Frederick B., West Hartford,

Conn. Wierk, Mrs. Myrtle Viccaro, West

Hartford, Conn. Wiggam, Mrs. Elizabeth B., Austin, Tex.

Wiggin, Mrs. Ruth, Vancouver, Wash. Wilcox, Gordon, Faribault, Minn. Wilcox, J. Clayton, Riverside, Calif. Wilcoxson, William C., Berkeley, Calif. Wilding, David, Gooding, Idaho Wilding, Mrs. Della, Gooding, Idaho Wildt, Gertrude, West Hartford, Conn. Wiley, Mrs. Bettigene, Compton, Calif. Wilkins, Booker, Spartanburg, S.C. Wilkins, Frances M., New York, N.Y. Wilkinson, Blanche, Spartanburg, S.C. Wilkinson, Donald, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Wilkinson, Mrs. J. E., Jackson, Miss. Wilkinson, Myrlene, Columbus, Ohio Willcoxon, Dorothy L., Austin, Tex.

V

Williams, Mrs. Helen P., Delavan, Wis. Williams, Mrs. James S., Austin, Tex. Williams, Mrs. Jane C., Morganton,

N.C. Williams, Mrs. Laura F., Jackson, Miss.

Williams, Lucille P., Austin, Tex. Williams, Marjorie M., Roxbury. Mass.

Williams, Mrs. Mary Ann, Beverly, Mass.

Williams, Mary L., Austin, Tex. Williams, Mrs. Mollye J., Hampton,

Williams, Mrs. Polly, Cave Springs.

Williams, Shirley, Detroit, Mich. Williamson, Mrs. Kathryn, Berkeley, Calif.

Willingham, Mrs. Bernardine, Austin, Tex. Willis, Arthur, Berkeley, Calif.

Willis, Mrs. Shirley, New York, N.Y. Wilson, Mrs. Blanche, Staunton, Va. Wilson, Mrs. Frances, Staunton, Va. Wilson, Grace, Birmingham, Ala.
Wilson, Mrs. Helen H., Richmond, Va.
Wilson, Kenneth L., Jacksonville, Ill.
Wilson, Mrs. Patricia, Indianapolis,
Ind.

Wilson, Sylvia E., Edgewood, Pittsburgh, Pa.

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Wilton, Mrs. Mae, Baton Rouge, La. Wiltse, Mrs. Frances, Devils Lake, N. Dak.

Wiltse, Lyle A., Devils Lake, N. Dak. Winchester, Mrs. DeLanie B., Morganton, N.C.

Wing, Mrs. Marion, Detroit, Mich.
Wingo, Mrs. Annie, Spartanburg, S.C.
Winkler, Mrs. Maude H., Tucson, Ar'z.
Winn, Lilly, Staunton, Va.
Winter, Mrs. Pauline, Fulton, Mo.
Winton, Mrs. Phyllis J., Sulphur, Okla.
Wise, Maybelle, Columbus, Ohio
Woebke, John, Staunton, Va.
Woerner, Mrs. Mary, Great Falls, Mont.
Wogenstahl, Mrs. Dorothy S., Cleveland,

Ohio
Wohlstrom, Elvira C., Frederick, Md.
Wojan, Mrs. Kathleen, New York, N.Y.
Wolach, Marvin, Santa Fe, N. Mex.
Wolf, Mrs. Edna, Berkeley, Calif.
Wolke, Mary E. Jacksonville, Ill.
Wonder, Guy, Yancouver, Wash.
Wood, Mrs. Joan, Oshkosh, Wis.
Wood, Mrs. Margaret, New York, N.Y.
Wood, Marvin L., Little Rock, Ark.
Wood, Wilbur, Knoxville, Tenn.
Woodrick, Bill, Jackson, Miss.
Woodruff, Irvan L., Berkeley, Calif.
Woodrum, Mrs. Dorothy, Staunton, Va.
Woods, Mrs. Lucie, Romney, W. Va.

Woodson, Barbara, Austin, Tex. Woodward, Karen, Columbus, Ohio. Woofter, Herbert R., Washington, D.C. Worling, Dorothy, Beverly, Mass. Worthen, Mrs. Hope, Concord, Calif. Wray, Mrs. Shirley, Staunton, Va. Wrentmore, Mrs. Kay, Indianapolis, Ind.

Wright, Mrs. Avis, Staunton, Va. Wright, Mrs. Isabella, Salem, Oreg. Wright, Sue, Romney, W. Va. Wrona, Mrs. Elizabeth, Buffalo, N.Y. Wyatt, Eva, Toronto, Ontario. Wymore, Mrs. Pauline, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Yynne, Mattie, Staunton, Va.
Yates, Mrs. Annabel, Staunton, Va.
Yates, Arthur H., Jacksonville, Ill.
Yates, Fred, Staunton, Va.
Yates, Mrs. Margaret, Frederick, Md.
Yeager, Charles H., Washington, D.C.
Yoder, Adolphus, Flint, Mich.
Young, Mrs. Annette S., Riverside,
Calif.
Young, Delmas, Knoxville, Tenn.

Young, Delmas, Knoxville, Tenn. Young, Mrs. Sally, Olathe, Kans. Youngers, Mrs. Retta T., Olathe, Kans. Youngers, Richard T., Sulphur, Okla. Youngs, Joseph P., Jr., Berkley, Calif. Yowell, Emily S., West Hartford, Conn. Zieske, Paul C., Flint, Mich. Zimmerman, Mrs. Mildred S., Frederick, Md.

Zink Henry R., Riverside, Calif. Ziskowski, Julia, West Hartford, Conn. Zook, George A., Jacksonville, Ill. Zudick, Mrs. Mary B., Dearborn, Mich. Zwick, Leonard C., Rochester, N.Y.



CONSTITUTION OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

ARTICLE I. NAME

This association shall be called the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

ARTICLE II. OBJECTS

The objects of this association shall be:

First: To secure the harmonious union in one organization of all persons actually engaged in educating the deaf in America.

Second. To provide for general and local meetings of such persons from time to time, with a view of affording opportunities for a free interchange of views concerning methods and means of educating the deaf.

Third. To promote by the publication of reports, essays, and other writings, the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced, and practical lines, in harmony with the sentiments and practice suggested by the following preamble and resolutions unanimously adopted by the convention in 1886 at a meeting held in Berkeley, Calif.:

"Whereas the experience of many years in the instruction of the deaf has plainly shown that among members of this class of persons great differences exist in mental and physical conditions and in capacity for improvement, making results easily possible in certain cases which are practically and sometimes actually unattainable in others, these differences suggesting widely different treatment with different individuals: It is therefore

"Resolved, That the system of instruction existing at present in America commends itself to the world for the reason that its tendency is to include all known methods and expedients which have been found to be of value in the education of the deaf while it allows diversity and independence of action and work at the same time, harmoniously aiming at the attainment of an object common to all; and be it further

"Resolved, That earnest and persistent endeavors should be made in every school for the deaf to teach every pupil to speak and read from the lips, and that such efforts should be abandoned only when it is plainly evident that the measure of success attained does not justify the necessary amount of labor: Provided, That the children who are given to articulation teachers for trial should be given to teachers who are trained for the work, and not to novices, before saying that it is a failure: And provided further, That a general test be made and that those who are found to have sufficient hearing to distinguish sound shall be instructed orally."

Fourth. As an association to stand committed to no particular theory, method, or system, and adopting as its guide the following motto: "Any method for good results; all methods, and wedded to none."

ARTICLE III. MEMBERS

Section 1a. All persons actively and directly engaged in the education of the deaf in the United States and Canada may enjoy all the rights and privileges of membership in the association upon payment of the required fees and agreeing to this constitution.

Sec. 1b. Persons engaged in fields of endeavor closely related to the education of the deaf, and persons actively engaged in the education of the deaf in foreign countries, may become associate members of the association upon payment of the required fees and agreeing to the constitution.

SEC. 1c. "Associate members" shall enjoy all the rights and privileges of membership except those of voting and holding office.

Sec. 2. A member or former member of the association who has retired from active service may continue his membership with all the rights and privileges except those of holding office upon payment of the required fees and agreeing to this constitution.

Sec. 3. Eligibility of applicants for membership shall be determined by the standing executive committee and reported to the association.

Sec. 4. Each person joining the association shall pay annual dues of \$5.

SEC. 5. In addition to the annual dues, a registration fee shall be paid by each member registered at each regular meeting of the association. The amount of this fee shall be determined by the standing executive committee. Nonmembers attending the regular meetings of the association shall pay the required registration fee.

Sec. 6. Applications for membership must be made to the treasurer, who will receive all membership fees and dues. If there is a question about the eligibity of an applicant for membership, the treasurer shall refer the application to the standing executive committee. All privileges of membership are forfeited by the nonpayment of dues.

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS

Section 1. At each general meeting of the association there shall be elected by ballot a president, first vice president, second vice president, secretary, treasurer, and three directors. With the immediate past president, these nine persons will form the standing executive committee of the convention. They shall continue in office until the close of the convention program at which their successors are elected, and shall have power to fill vacancies occurring in their body between general meetings.

SEC. 2. The president, with the concurrence of the executive committee, shall designate such sections as seem advisable for the functioning of the association and shall appoint the section leaders thereof.

Sec. 3. The general management of the affairs of the association shall be in the hands of the standing executive committee, subject to the provisions of such bylaws as the association shall see fit to adopt.

SEC. 4. All officers and members of committees must be active members of the association in regular standing.

Sec. 5. The standing executive committee shall make a full report at each general meeting of all the operations of the association, including receipts and disbursements of funds, since the preceding meeting.

ARTICLE V. MEETINGS

Section 1. General meetings of the association shall be held biennially, but the standing executive committee may call other general meetings at their discretion.

Sec. 2. Local meetings may be convened as the standing executive committee and the committees on local meetings shall determine.

Sec. 3. Proxies shall not be used at any meeting of the association, but they may be used in committee meetings.

Sec. 4. Notice of general meetings shall be given at least 4 months in advance and notice of local meetings at least 2 months in advance.

SEC. 5. The business of the association shall be transacted only at general meetings, and at such meetings 100 voting members of the association must be present to constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE VI

In the first election of officers held under the provisions of this constitution, said election occurring immediately after its adoption, all duly accredited active members of the 14th meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf shall be entitled to vote, said members making payment of their membership fees to the treasurer at the earliest practicable opportunity after he shall have been elected.

ARTICLE VII. AMENDMENTS

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This constitution may be amended by an affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members present at any general meeting of the association: *Provided*, That at such meeting at least 150 voting members of the association shall be present.

ARTICLE VIII

Devises and bequests may be worded as follows: "I give, devise, and bequeath to the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, for the promotion of the cause of the education of the deaf, in such maner as the standing executive committee thereof may direct," etc.; and if there be any conditions, and "subject to the following conditions, to wit:"

INTERPRETERS

Kenneth Huff, Superintendent, Wisconsin School, chairman

Lloyd Ambrosen, Maryland Louis M. Boley, West Virginia Melvin H. Brasel, Nebraska Harvey T. Christian, Kansas Mrs. Emma Cunningham, Colorado Anne M. Davis, Maryland Mrs. William L. Fair, Indiana Edith Fauth, Maryland Barry L. Griffing, Riverside, Calif. Dr. Lloyd Graunke, Tennessee Charlie B. Grow, Kentucky Mrs. Tommy L. Hall, Oklahoma Dr. Marshall Hester, New Mexico Dr. Ralph L. Hoag, Arizona Ben Hoffmeyer, North Carolina Kenneth E. Huff, Wisconsin Eloise Kennedy, New Mexico

James R. Kirkley, Colorado Robert K. Lennan, Riverside, Calif. R. M. McAdams, North Carolina Dr. William J. McClure, Indiana Floyd J. McDowell, Montana Mrs. Mabel W. Nilson, Ohio Lloyd R. Parks, Kansas Roy G. Parks, Arkansas Edward Reay, Idaho Stanley D. Roth, Kansas Dr. Hugo Schunhoff, Berkeley, Calif. Polly Shahan, Kendall Eldon E. Shipman, West Virginia Eugene Thomure, South Dakota Mrs. Margaret Thoreson, Washington Armin Turechek, Riverside, Calif. Arthur H. Yates, Illinois

SECTION COMMITTEE LEADERS

Indiana

Texas

Allen J. Hayek, Idaho Mrs. Donaldina Tennis. Language.

Riverside, Calif. Mathematics, Mr. Eugene Thomure,

South Dakota Multiple handicaps, Dr. Ralph Hoag, Arizona

Preschool and kindergarten, Miss Hattie Harrell, Oregon

Principals and supervising teachers, Mr. Albert Douglas, Texas

Auditory training, Dr. Frank X. Frueh, Reading, Mr. Gilbert Delgado, Berkeley, Calif.

Day schools, Miss Audrey C. Hicks, Research, Dr. Stephen Quigley, District of Columbia

Health and physical education, Mr. Science, Mr. Robert G. Clingenpeel, New Mexico

Social studies, Mr. Kendall D. Litchfield, New York Speech, Mr. Tony Christopulos, Utah

Visual education, Mr. John A. Gough, District of Columbia

Vocational education, Mr. Paul E. Mc-Lelland, Virginia

Reporter, Albert B. Davis, Missouri

REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

FORTIETH MEETING OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERI-CAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF, HELD AT THE OREGON SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, SALEM, OREG., JUNE 25-30, 1961

SUNDAY, JUNE 25, 1961

10 a.m.-5 p.m.

General registration, main building office.

3 p.m.

Training meeting of all section leaders and workshop chairmen, Dr. David Brody, Oregon College of Education, main building chapel.

8 p.m.

Opening general session.

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Presiding: Dr. Richard G. Brill, president.

Invocation: Rev. George Ring, Hope Lutheran Church for the Deaf, Portland.

Songs: "Star-Spangled Banner" and "God Save the Queen" (led by Mrs. Gus Lindstrand; signed by Mrs. Thomas Ulmer).

Address of welcome: Mr. Marvin B. Clatterbuck, superintendent, Oregon

Greetings from the city of Salem, Mayor Russell F. Bonesteele.

Greetings from the State of Oregon, Secretary of State Howell Appling, Jr. President's report: Dr. Richard G. Brill, president, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

Guest speaker: Dr. Frank B. Bennett, president, Eastern Oregon College.

Remarks: Mr. Roy M. Stelle, program chairman. Announcements: Mr. Marvin B. Clatterbuck. Reception: Lindstrom Hall.

Interpreters: William J. McClure, Stanley Roth.

The convention was called to order by Dr. Richard G. Brill, president. The invocation was pronounced by the Reverend George Ring, Hope Lutheran Church for the Deaf, Portland, Oreg. The audience joined in singing the "Star-Spangled Banner" and "God Save the Queen."

Dr. Brill. The members of the staff of the Oregon State School for the Deaf have been preparing for this day for 2 long years, and the man who has had the responsibility for this preparation, of course, is our host superintendent, Mr. Clatterbuck. It gives me a great deal of pleasure to present Mr. Clatterbuck to you at this time.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

(MARVIN CLATTERBUCK, superintendent, Oregon School, Salem)

Dr. Brill, and ladies and gentlemen, this is the night we have been looking forward to for 2 years. We have put a great deal of time and

effort in trying to plan this convention so that you will enjoy it, and also receive a great deal of help from attending it. The staff of the Oregon State School for the Deaf is very happy to welcome each of you here. We hope that you will enjoy your time on our campus, and that the weather will continue to be nice. If you are not comfortable or need some assistance in any way, we invite you to come to our office and let us know, and we will do everything we can to make your stay pleasant. It is a real pleasure to have so many of you here tonight. It's sort of like a homecoming when people from Callaway County get together, and it's nice to see so many friends here. We hope that none of you will go away unhappy; that you will be glad you came, and we do want to welcome you to our school.

Dr. Brill. Thank you, Mr. Clatterbuck. We will now receive greet-

ings from the city of Salem, and it's my privilege to present His Honor,

Mayor Russell F. Bonesteele.

GREETINGS FROM THE CITY OF SALEM

(RUSSELL F. BONESTEELE, mayor)

Dr. Brill, Secretary of State Appling, distinguished guests on the platform, and ladies and gentlemen, it is indeed a real pleasure for me to welcome you to Salem City, also the capital of the State of Oregon, for the 40th biennial meeting of the American Instructors of the Deaf. I hope you will have an enjoyable and fruitful meeting. I understand the theme of this convention is "Setting Our Sights for the Sixties." As in all professions, whether it be government, medicine, education, or any other endeavor of man, we all try to improve our service. I have great admiration for the people of our State and country who have chosen a career that is geared to help those less fortunate than most of us. I marvel at the progress that has been made by humanitarians such as yourselves who take our handicapped youth and prepare them for a happy life in society. You are certainly to be commended for a job well done. I know that you have your sights set high, and that you will meet the challenge of the sixties. Again, it has been a real pleasure to be here and greet you, and I hope you will take advantage of and enjoy the many facilities that Salem has to offer.

Dr. Brill. Thank you, Mayor Bonesteele. We will now have the pleasure of hearing the secretary of state of the State of Oregon, a gentleman who is also a member of the Board of Control of the Oregon State School for the Deaf, Mr. Howell Appling, Jr.

GREETINGS FROM THE STATE OF OREGON

(Howell Appling, Jr., secretary of state)

Dr. Brill, distinguished guests all, I can't tell you how sincerely privileged and pleased I am to represent the board of control here this

evening, and to welcome a group of this sort to our State.

We, of course, are always happy to have visitors in the State of Oregon, but I like to think there is something a little bit special about a group of this kind, dedicated as you are to helping every individual among us to attain those God-given potentials which we each have. Teachers of the deaf and of the blind and of the handicapped certainly have the most patient of dispositions and warmest of hearts,

and certainly the most understanding minds in order to begin to cope with the challenges that you must find in your professional world.

You will recall that some 180 years ago, our Founding Fathers said

in the Declaration of Independence-

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We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

Of course, we have many discussions and misunderstandings as to just what is meant that all men are created equal. Of course, you know that all men are not created equal. We are all created equal in the sight of God, but unfortunately, we are not equal in the physical

or mental facilities with which we are born.

We have four children in our family, and certainly we have learned that they are each quite different, and you have learned in your work how different people are, but, of course, the great principle to which our Founding Fathers dedicated their message in the Declaration of Independence, and the principle which lies at the very heart of our Nation is the assurance of equality of opportunity to take those potentials with which God endowed us, and to develop them and use to their fullest potential. Of course, you have dedicated yourselves to this great opportunity, and to this great potential, and we are especially glad to welcome a group of this sort to our State. We hope, that in addition to providing you an opportunity to learn more about us and to learn more about the State of Oregon, that we may in return learn from you. We like to think that we are on the horizon of a very progressive era in the operation of our State institutions, of which this We have been very proud of the large number of students sent to Gallaudet College. We have a fine scholarship program that has been developed with the Oregon College of Education to help to train teachers of the deaf. We are on the threshold of the development of a research program in our State wherein we hope, not only to improve our teaching methods, but also to perhaps learn some of the causes of the ailments with which we are concerned, and the handicaps with which we are concerned in this and other institutions; and finally, while you are here, you may have some opportunity to enjoy the State in which we take pride. Oregonians regard their State with a kind of special pride, perhaps not as boisterous as that of Texasand I might add hastily for the benefit of our Texas visitors that I feel free to make such comment since I am a former Texan myself but for these and many other reasons we are very glad to welcome you here. We hope your deliberations will be fruitful and your stay in our State most pleasant, and that you will come back and see us real soon.

Dr. Brill. Thank you, Mr. Appling. On your program you will see that the next item is the president's report, and I should like to

give that at this time.

PRESIDENT'S REPORT

(RICHARD G. BRILL, Ed. D., superintendent, California School for the Deaf. Riverside)

The first meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf was held 111 years ago, from August 28 to August 30 in 1850 in New York. Since that time, the organization has grown and its influence has of course spread. The basic purposes of this organization are printed inside the front cover of each issue of the American Annals of the Deaf, and they read as follows:

The American Instructors of the Deaf, founded in 1850 and incorporated by act of Congress in 1897, is an organization of educators of the deaf in the United States and Canada with the general object of "promotion of the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced, and practical lines," and for that purpose "to secure the harmonious union in the organization, of all persons actually engaged in educating the deaf in America."

The quotations within that statement were first publicly stated at the 11th meeting of this organization which was held at Berkeley, Calif., July 15 to July 23 in 1886. So while this organization has been in existence for more than a century, and its basic objectives have remained the same for at least 75 years and probably longer, the methods of carrying out these purposes and objectives have expanded in recent years. For a long time the organization functioned primarily in terms of holding a meeting approximately every 2 years. As society has developed and changed, due to the great advances in rapid communication and transportation, the methods of functioning of organizations have had to change also.

Our biennial meetings are still our most important function. However, if we are going to maintain our general object of "promotion of the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced, and practical lines," this organization must function in other ways in addition to the highly important biennial meeting. This report, in dealing with the past 2 years since our meeting in Colorado Springs in 1959, will bring the membership up to date on the activities of the organization.

Certain mandates in the form of resolutions were passed by the membership at the Colorado meeting. One of the resolutions was actually submitted to the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf in which it was requested that the conference of executives consider and investigate the possibilities of (1) setting up a minimum standard of requirements for candidates for positions as houseparents in our residential schools for the deaf, and (2) that the conference also consider and investigate the possibilities of setting up a program for certification for those holding the positions as houseparents. I can report to you now that the conference of executives established a committee with Mr. Marvin Clatterbuck as chairman and Mr. Stanley Roth and Mr. Virgil Epperson as members. This committee submitted a report to the conference of executives at its meeting at Northwestern University in Evanston, Ill., in April 1960. The conference of executives adopted certain standards for houseparents as follows:

(1) First grade houseparent be one with a degree and 1 year experience.

(2) Second grade houseparent be one with 2 years of college and 2 years' experience.

(3) Third grade houseparent be a high school graduate with 5 years' experience. This grade to be dropped at the end of 5 years.

The conference of executives also provided that a committee be appointed to draw up the details and mechanics for certification of houseparents and this committee report is expected to be submitted at the next meeting of the conference of executives.

At the Colorado meeting another resolution for action by this body was to the effect that we should investigate the possibilities of (1) including as bona fide members those men and women serving as houseparents in our residential schools for the deaf, recognizing the fact that the houseparents are indeed instructors in every sense of the word, and (2) that there be a section on the program of future conventions designed to meet the needs of the houseparent. Action to study this problem was initiated by the appointment of a committee composed of John Wallace of the Florida school as chairman, Elizabeth Benson of Gallaudet College, Joe Youngs of the California school at Berkeley, Mrs. Doris Orman of the Illinois school, and Edward Reay of the Idaho school. I hope we will have a report

from this committee at our business meeting Wednesday.

At the meeting in Colorado, the membership authorized the American Instructors of the Deaf in conjunction with the conference of executives to recognize teachers of long and devoted service by issuing a certificate of merit to them. The requirements established for such a certificate are that the individual has either completed 25 years of service as a teacher of the deaf or has retired as a teacher of the deaf after 15 years of service. Superintendents of schools for the deaf are not eligible for this certificate, except when recommended by the executive committee of the conference of executives or by the board of directors of the American Instructors of the Deaf. Dr. George M. McClure of Kentucky was presented the first certificate on May 1, 1960, with a total of 80 years of service. He was 98 years of age at the time. Up to the present time we have issued 156 such certificates.

During the past 2 years there have been a number of meetings of other organizations where it was believed that it was important to have the American Instructors of the Deaf officially represented. Mr. Lloyd Ambrosen of the Maryland School for the Deaf has been our ambassador to a number of such meetings. In addition to the fact that he is highly qualified and highly competent to represent us, his proximity to Washington, D.C., has made it practical for him to represent us at some meetings. He was our representative at a workshop for audiologists and again at a workshop for psychologists, both of which were held at Gallaudet College. He also represented us at a meeting called by former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, Arthur Fleming, at which time a report entitled "National Goals in the Staffing and Construction of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools" was reviewed.

Mr. Ambrosen, Mr. Roy Stelle, and your president represented the organization at a meeting called by Dr. Romaine Mackie of the U.S. Office of Education, various agencies concerned with handicapped

children participating.

Dr. Dan Cloud has ably represented us at an interagency relations committee which has met from time to time in Washington and in New York City. At that group there are representatives from such areas as cerebral palsy, mental deficiency, National Rehabilitation Association, associations for the gifted, for the crippled, for the blind, and speech and hearing groups.

Your president was your representative at the golden anniversary, 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. While this was a tremendously large conference with 7,600 participants, it was

organized in a work group manner and your president had the opportunity of working actively in the preparation and final editing of the resolutions pertaining to the education of physically handicapped children.

The American Instructors of the Deaf also contributed \$100 for the Council of National Organizations on Children and Youth which was established for the purpose of helping to organize the White House Conference

The American Annals of the Deaf receives much of its financial support through the American Instructors of the Deaf as we pay \$1 out of each of the individual \$2 dues to the Annals. This means that in recent years we have been paying approximately \$2,400 per year toward the basic Annals' support. In addition to this, we have supported the Annals' office further by purchasing an Addressorette machine, the Addressorette plates and paying for the typing of the stencils on these plates for mass mailing that must be carried on by the American Annals of the Deaf to operate efficiently. It was because of this that we were able to send preliminary registration forms directly to each teacher of the deaf who is listed in the January Annals previous to this convention.

Under the direction of the editor of the Annals, a parent's packet is prepared each year and mailed to schools that in turn will provide these parent packets to the parents of deaf children. A year ago 5,000 were prepared and the conference of executives authorized the preparation of 10,000 packets for 1961. The American Instructors of the Deaf has helped to support this by providing some financial assistance toward the mailing costs.

The editor of the Annals has also prepared a brochure entitled, "Information for Prospective Teachers of the Deaf." This brochure was prepared under the auspices of the conference of executives, but again this organization has helped to support it financially.

Since before the meeting in Colorado in 1959 we have been actively working for Federal legislation which would provide stipends to prospective teachers of the deaf. It is believed that this is a very practical way to help eliminate the teacher shortage in our field. Through conferences with legislators in Washington, and through extensive correspondence, certain progress has been made. A bill has been adopted by the U.S. Senate and this bill is still in committee in the House of Representatives.

As indicated earlier, the American Instructors of the Deaf has long been a principal financial support of the American Annals of the Deaf. The Annals is the official organ of this organization. At the same time, since 1868, the American Annals of the Deaf has traditionally been owned, ably managed, and developed by the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf through its executive committee. In view of the fact then that this journal has been owned and managed by one organization while it additionally serves a second organization which provides a major part of its financial support, it has been long felt that there should be a clarification of the relationship of this organization to the Annals. This relationship has been resolved by an invitation from the conference of executives to the American Instructors of the Deaf to share in the management of the Annals through participation on a joint annals advisory committee. It is the function of this committee to advise and make recommenda-

tions to the executive committee of the conference concerning any and all matters relating to the publication of the Annals.

This joint advisory committee has been established and the representatives of the American Instructors of the Deaf are Edward R. Abernathy of Ohio, W. Lloyd Graunke of Tennessee, and Joe R.

Shinpaugh of Virginia, as well as the president.

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In my estimation, the most important action of this organization during the past 2 years has been participation in the establishment of the new organization entitled, Council on Education of the Deaf, which is commonly referred to as the CED. This Council on Education of the Deaf is composed of the American Instructors of the Deaf, the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, and the Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf. I am sure that you have seen a copy of the constitution with the objectives as it has been published in both the American Annals of the Deaf and the Volta Review and also in some of our school papers. Membership is by organization with four representatives of each of these three organizations constituting the council. The four representatives are composed of the president and three appointed members. The three appointed members from this organization in addition to the president are David Mudgett, a deaf classroom teacher of the Illinois school; Joe Giangreco, assistant superintendent and principal of the Iowa school; and Lloyd Ambrosen, superintendent of the Maryland school.

One of the first major responsibilities of this organization is going to be to host an International Congress on Education of the Deaf to be held at Gallaudet College in 1963. At our business meeting on Wednesday, I expect that we will receive an invitation from Dr. Leonard Elstad for this organization to hold its next convention at Washington, D.C., in 1963, and in this way we will be cosponsor of this international congress. There is precedence for this international congress as when the last one was held in the United States in 1933 at West Trenton, N.J., the American Instructors of the Deaf with four other organizations acted as cohosts. However, at that time, there was no unifying organization. I hope that our membership will see fit to accept Dr. Elstad's invitation.

I believe that the importance of this CED is of much greater significance than merely sponsoring the next international congress. This is an organization where we recognize that the differences between groups are of much less significance than our areas of agreement re-

garding the education of deaf children.

There have been items of business since the last convention which pertain directly to this present Oregon convention. At the Colorado convention we provided an opportunity for those attending to turn in anonymous evaluation sheets. We believe that a fairly representative sample was turned in. An analysis of these evaluations indicated that a significant majority of those attending were in favor of the workshop format of the convention. Our program chairman, Mr. Stelle, has continued this for our present meeting with certain modifications resulting from our experience in the past.

Preceding the convention meeting in Colorado, Wednesday of convention week had always been devoted to a sightseeing trip. One of the results of this was that on Friday, the last day of the convention, there were frequently relatively few in attendance. In Colorado we

changed this with the sightseeing trip scheduled for Friday and the response on the evaluation sheets was approximately 2 to 1 in favor of having the sightseeing trips on Friday rather than on Wednesday. Because of this, the sightseeing trips have been planned at this meet-

ing for Friday.

For some time there has been a big question as to whether it was to the best interest of the teachers to have the deaf teachers isolated in their own sections. Frequently, some of the best papers presented at our conventions have been in the deaf teacher section. Those in other sections did not have the opportunity to know about them. It was agreed that we are primarily concerned with methods, techniques, and materials to be used in teaching children and in teaching content subjects and we are not primarily concerned with the method of communication used in teaching these. Therefore, a deaf teacher who is teaching social studies or arithmetic is interested in the same things that a hearing teacher who is teaching social studies or arithmetic is interested in, and vice versa. I appointed a committee composed of three deaf teachers, Mr. Ted Griffing, Mr. Larry Newman, and Mr. James Orman as chairman to determine whether they thought the deaf teachers would be willing to have this convention organized without special sections for the deaf. We agreed we would be sure to provide opportunity for deaf teachers to participate as leaders and recorders in the actual operation of the workshops, as well as participants. This committee agreed that we should try this and this is the reason why we do not have special sections for deaf teachers at this convention. We hope that this will be successful. If the deaf teachers, at the conclusion of this convention, feel that they would have preferred to have had their own sections I am sure that the program chairman and the program committee for future conventions will take their wishes into account.

We have had a very fine nominating committee functioning during the past 2 years. I can assure you that they carried on a great deal of correspondence and the chairman of that nominating committee, Mr. Lloyd Parks of the Kansas school, will make his report at the business meeting on Wednesday. In January of this year Miss Genevieve Ryan, who was the secretary of this organization, resigned because she was leaving her position as superintendent of the St. Joseph's School for the Deaf in New York at the end of the fall semester. While the executive committee would have had the authority to appoint a successor, I felt that in view of the nearness of this meeting and this

election that this was not necessary.

We have a major policy question in regard to the size of dues for this organization. I have tried to indicate that an organization such as this has many responsibilities to carry out in addition to its biennial meetings. In order to carry out such responsibilities properly there must be some financial backing. We have had a committee working during the past year to study our whole dues situation. This committee has been under the chairmanship of Lloyd Ambrosen of Maryland, with 14 others on the committee with him. This committee was

appointed with representatives from all over the United States and representing teachers, supervising teachers and superintendents so that it would have the widest possible range of views. This committee will have a report for you on Wednesday and this report has been printed so that you will have an opportunity to study it before you

are called upon to vote on its recommendations.

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The American Instructors of the Deaf is in fine shape, it has continued to grow. In 1960 when we had no national meeting we still had a larger membership than in the previous year when we had had the largest membership up to that time. Our treasurer tells me that before this meeting began here we again had a larger membership than we have ever had in the past and with the additional people who have joined and paid their dues while attending the meeting here in Salem we are at an alltime high. As the organization is able to do

more, I would expect that it would continue to grow.

I want to extend my very personal thanks to the officers and members of the board of directors of this organization who have so ably supported me during the past 2 years. I want also to express my thanks to all of the section leaders and to each person who is contributing to the success of this convention. This particularly includes the members of the staff of the Oregon School for the Deaf. I want especially to thank by name Marvin Clatterbuck as the host superintendent; Roy Stelle, our program chairman; and Tom Dillon, the treasurer, for all of the work that they have done during the past 2 years.

The theme of this convention is, "Setting Our Sights for the Sixties." I hope that these sights will be set with a long-range view so that we can provide the best education possible for all deaf children.

Now, I will ask Mr. Clatterbuck to present our guest speaker.

Mr. Clatterbuck. Thank you, Dr. Brill. It's a real pleasure for me to present our guest speaker tonight. I have known this gentleman for a good many years, and we are always happy to have him in Salem. He was born in McCoy, Oreg., and frankly, I don't know where McCoy is. He started teaching in a rural school in 1916, and quickly moved from this into a high school, and became superintendent of a high school, and in 1939 he became superintendent of the city schools of Salem, Oreg. He served in this position up until 1952, when we very much regretted seeing him leave this position to go as president of Eastern Oregon College, so you can see he has had experience all the way from the rural school to the presidency of a college. I think this qualifies him very well to speak to a group of educators.

He is a veteran of World War I, and a member of the American Legion. He is a past president of the Oregon Lay Conference in the Methodist Church, and a member of the Oregon State Retirement Board. We could go on and name many, many organizations that he has worked with and for, and it is a real pleasure that I present to you at this time as our guest speaker, Dr. Frank B. Bennett, president of

Eastern Oregon College.

THE SECOND MILE

(Dr. Frank B. Bennett, president, Eastern Oregon College, La Grande)

Superintendent Clatterbuck, honored guests, and all you guests of the State of Oregon, it's a pleasure for me to come and share with you. I have known the host superintendent, Mr. Clatterbuck, for most of the 34 years he has been a teacher and administrator. It is also a pleasure to know that in a State like ours, we have individuals with direct responsibility for this type of institution—interested enough to take their time to be with us on the opening of such a convention. I refer to our secretary of state, Mr. Appling.

Mr. Clatterbuck has told you that I started to teach in a country school. It was a log schoolhouse and in 1916. After 1 year, I decided that I didn't know enough to teach, so I went to college and got a college education. There were many things those children taught me in that first year, but I felt that maybe college professors could do me even more good, so I went. I returned to teaching from college. I have served as a public school administrator for 31 years and subsequently, for 9 years as a college president. I have found college work very interesting with similarities and differences. For instance, someone has defined a college professor as one "who thinks otherwise." I thought you would enjoy that one, particularly you administrators. Then I heard this one, "A college professor dreamed he was lecturing, and woke up and found he was." The one my faculty likes best, however, is this one, "College presidents never die—they just lose their faculties."

I notice your slogan, "Setting our Sights for the Sixties." In this connection I wish to take as my subject tonight, "The Second Mile." The Master Teacher was teaching a group of people. He was discussing their problems. He was trying to make clear to them one particular problem. He said, "If a man require of you that you go with him twain, go the second mile." This saying bothered me for years. It didn't have meaning for me until I discovered some of the attending circumstances. I found the Hebrews were people subject to Rome. I found that as subject people, any one of them might be tapped on the shoulder by any Roman, particularly a Roman soldier, and required to carry his luggage for a mile.

Now, I suspect if I was accosted in such a fashion under such circumstances, and told to shoulder someone else's luggage and carry it for a mile, I would have been somewhat disturbed. I probably would have become somewhat angry, and I certainly would have felt the injustice of the thing. I would probably have said things under my breath I would not have dared to say out loud, but nonetheless, I would have picked up the baggage and carried it for a mile.

But as the Master taught that day—he said to the people in substance, "If a soldier taps you on the shoulder and requires you to carry his baggage for a mile, go with him 2 miles." This saying was even harder for me to accept than that other saying, "If a man strike you on one cheek, turn the other also."

Then one day an able lecturer gave it meaning for me. I am not sure this is the correct meaning, but I know this interpretation had meaning for me. In that first mile, he said the Hebrew was a slave. In the first mile he could do nothing else except what he was told to do. He could do it in anger, he could do it reluctantly, or he could do it under duress. However he did it, it was his to do. In the first mile he was a slave. But when he came to the second mile, it was different. He did not have to go that mile. If he chose to do it, he was, for that mile, a free man. It was his mile. I think the Master was saying to us, "Go beyond the requirement. Reach out beyond that which you are required to do, and in doing so, find the joy of life in 'the second mile'." So I want to talk to you tonight about setting your "Sights for

the Sixties" in the light of the "second mile."

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A little boy, very fond of molasses, found a barrel of it in front of a store on the way to school. Daily he would dip a lick of molasses as he passed. One cold day, when the molasses had gotten low in the barrel, he jumped up on the edge of the barrel and fell in. He came up dripping molasses from head to foot. He considered his plight for a moment and then lifted his eyes to heaven and said, "Oh, Lord, please make my tongue equal to this occasion." As I speak to you tonight on the subject of "the second mile," I pray that my tongue may be equal to this occasion, because I recognize the audience before me as one composed of people who have dedicated themselves to a "second mile." You would not have chosen this area of teaching had you not sensed

somehow the joy that comes in the "second mile."

Quickly, I wish to review with you a bit of the history of education through the ages. We did not always deal in the second mile. cation in the beginning was for the privileged, for the few, or for the sake of the State. Go back to ancient Egypt, and you will find education the privilege of the elite and necessary to the State that they might have generals for wars and engineers to build bridges, pyramids, et cetera. These enterprises were necessary to the position of Egypt, so they trained people from their elite and paid no attention to others. It mattered not if 20,000 people died in the building of a pyramid so long as Egypt prospered. If you turn to the education of Greece, or to the education of Rome, you will find a similar pattern, however on a somewhat higher level. For instance, in Greece, they talked of a pattern like this-that as soon as an individual, privileged to attend school, failed, he be dropped. The earlier he failed, the lower his station would be: servant, laborer, foot-soldier. The farther he was able to go in school, the higher his station could be: merchant, military, physician, teacher, philosopher. This pattern, free from position of birth, was never achieved by them. A similar situation developed in Rome. In each of these three countries, the elite might be determined differently in different countries-family, wealth, and so forth, but however determined, it determined their privilege of education. Nowhere did they reach out and try to find the able among those that were not in the elite class.

Such a departure began somewhat later with European education. However, it was not until America established a new form of government that we had a massive attempt to make meaningful such passages as our Secretary of State recited to you tonight—"All men are created equal," or "The right of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." As he emphasized, this is not an assertion of equality of ability but rather an equality of opportunity. This new concept

in government and education was a departure, it was indeed something new. The Master Teacher had taught the dignity of all men and that every individual is important. Now a government set itself

through education to implement such a society.

At first, even so, our schools were pretty much the privilege of the more fortunate. Little thought was at first given anyone with obvious handicaps. I recall a little boy we had in school back in 1927. He wasn't doing well in school. He came to the first grade and stayed there 2 years to keep the teacher company. Then the teacher promoted him to the second grade to let another teacher have the joy of his company. This teacher was about to retain him there a second year when something happened. Even in 1927 we had made a little progress in education. We had gotten an instrument we called an audiometer. We put this youngster through the test. We discovered something that his folks had not known and something his teachers had not recognized. We found out this child could scarcely hear at all. Now, this little youngster had begun to make a nuisance of himself. He became quite a cartoonist. He could take a pen and make his teacher look silly. He drew pictures of her, pictures that angered her and made students giggle. When we found out what was wrong with him, we sent him over here. This was about the time Mr. Clatterbuck started to teach at this institution. This little boy came over here and learned to lip read. I remember the day he returned to our school. His hair was combed. It was the first time I had seen it combed. His face was washed, and he came to my office bright and shiny and happy. He sat across the table from me very attentive.

I talked with him and I talked with the representative of this school. The representative said if we could just arrange it so this youngster could always be seated so he would have the advantage of seeing the speaker, he should be able to do well. Some 20 years later I went to that same community to speak. After the meeting, a man walked up to me and said, "Mr. Bennett, you don't remember me." I said, "Yes, I remember you," and I spoke his name. He said, "I am the little brat that caused so much trouble for 2 or 3 years." I replied, "No, you were the little fellow who for 2 or 3 years we didn't

understand."

Now, I am not talking about anything new to you, but I am talking about something that began to happen in American schooling. It happened when we reached out and began to say that this worthwhileness of the individual, regardless of handicaps, is paramount. We do not care whether the handicap be from deafness or whether the handicap be from something else—the philosophy of American education

is that each one is important for his own sake.

Let me tell the story differently. We have a son. He was not doing too well in school. I took him to our school psychologist. I asked him to give the boy a test. He gave him the test and then brought me his findings. He asked me what results I expected. I answered that I expected he would find him possibly my brightest youngster. He said, "I thought maybe you thought he was dumb and that was why you brought him to me." Listen to me—the tendency through the ages has always been that an individual that did not, for some reason, perform well was thought to be odd, different, or dumb. He gave me his report—a very good mind and rather superior in certain areas.

I do not want to drag my family into this, but I want you to know that I know what one feels when it comes so close to home. This boy's difficulty was with reading and he was my boy. He had come to the fifth grade and was not doing well in school. We were trying to find the answer to his difficulty, just as we did for the little boy who was not hearing. We found the answer, and now year's later, our son is a college professor with a doctor of philosophy degree in physics.

That is supposed to be a rather tough course.

I am trying to say to you tonight that this American philosophy of education, this belief in the importance of the individual, must not be lost in the urgency of the new emphasis on excellence. Just now it seems the whole emphasis is on the very bright, to find the able, a drive for excellence. This emphasis is fine. We need the able, and we shall always need them for the preservation of our country. We need them now especially in the race with Russia, and we must educate these brighter folk to their optimum. At the same time, we must remember that some of these brighter folk may likely be among the handicapped. Who would gainsay that Helen Keller was among the bright? We need all of our able people for the sake of our country, but we need more than that. We need all of our people for their sake; each of them is as important to himself as any other person is to himself.

It is not enough that we somehow teach all people how to provide for themselves that they may have enough to live on. It becomes

essential that all people shall have enough to live for.

A boy came out of Europe. He came from a dictatorship that had been so drastic that he dreaded every day. He received word one day that there was an inheritance for him of \$6 million providing he would return and reside in his native country. He declined. Someone asked him why he did not go, and he said that \$6 million would have been enough to live on but in that country, not enough to live for. He chose to keep his citizenship in the United States that he might

have enough to live for.

Education has been described as a great pyramid. This base is a layer of the very common folk, and at the peak are the very superior. This was supposed to have been in keeping with the philosophy of Egypt, Greece, and Rome. In their pyramids there were the layers of the elite and the less elite and on down at the bottom were the slave people, each one in his layer. Each new generation's chance for education was already determined by his birth status. The layers in this pyramid were inflexible. Recently I heard Max Lerner lecture in Chicago. He said that in America we are trying to build a different type of pyramid—the same broad base, but without stratified layers through it; one where the Lincolns can come through. This is what I am talking about. In reaching out to include all, we teach in the second mile.

In saying that the little boy I spoke of shall have a right to hear, if only to read lips, is to recognize that he is important. To take this broader view will give us more nearly our maximum potential as a

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My father dropped out of school at the ninth grade. That seemed sufficient then. I, too, could have dropped out of school. Now children cannot drop out of school. The State says you must stay in school; but if we are required to stay in school, then school should have a profitable experience for each and every one. It would have

been a terrible thing had we kept the little boy who could not hear in school with no profit to him. Not hearing, he could have understood little that was going on. To have done so could only have produced frustration for him. Before he could lipread, he was angry within and rebelling against all society. As soon as we helped him to a medium of communication, he became sweetened. He became kindly. He became interested. He began to profit for his own sake and for the rest of us. He became a fine man, a good citizen of this country, all because someone went the second mile and said, "This one too is

important."

May I now draw your attention also to the fact that there is not just one handicap. There can be many handicaps. I have spoken of the handicap of my son and the boy that was deaf. In the same school where the deaf boy was, we had another boy. He was a boy that remained in grade school until he was 21. He wished to stay. His handicap was something very different. He didn't think too quickly or too critically. He didn't have too much "upstairs," it seemed. But he had a wonderful heart. He had a wonderful disposition, and in the social studies class he used a pen to draw pictures along the margins of the class project book. He illustrated with his pictures the things that had been in the minds of the group. He demonstrated that he too understood, was a part of, and wanted to be with them. The Second World War came. Why they took him I never knew, but they did. He went overseas and as a buck private, exhibited his love of country and of his fellow man. When his squad was ordered to withdraw from a ravine, a volunteer was needed to do a delaying action so that the rest could withdraw in safety. This boy, too slow to get through school at the age of 21, volunteered to cover for all the rest. The rest came home. He never did.

Do you see what I am trying to say to you—that there is something important about each human being. It's a wonderful thing, is it not, to live in a country that believes in that type of thing; that believes you are important and that I am important; and that believes that the child even so handicapped is important. By our actions we have accepted several responsibilities—the responsibility to bring everyone to his best for the sake of all of us; the responsibility to bring everyone to his own best, that he may be as nearly self-dependent and as productive as possible; and the further responsibility

that his life may be rich for and within him.

He needs to know that he too is important, regardless of his inheritance, regardless of the status of his parents, regardless of the color of his skin, or regardless of his birth or nationality. This is the doctrine of my country and yours, and when we accept the slogan, "Setting Our Sights for the Sixties," in the light of our interpretation of the second mile, we are talking about reaching out and finding the

ways by which we can do this task better.

You heard from this platform tonight there is a joint study between this institution and a neighboring college; a study to find a better way to do this teaching job. You heard that individuals from this school are going out into specialized advanced schools that we may have the benefit of their brains. This convention is concerned with improving methods and results. These are your purposes.

These things I think you and we should do. We should join hands as public and as special schools in a special effort to keep our public aware of the fact that this concern for the education of all is our heritage. It is so easy for society to lose sight of this fact. We need to emphasize that this is the complement of education of the able and an inherent part of education for excellence. We, as teachers, can help to keep the public aware of its responsibilities for this concept of education. We can, at the same time, I think, do our bit to more nearly bring every child to that child's own best. This can become a two-edged instrument. His very best can be a better contribution to his society, and at the same time his very best can bring a greater joy to himself.

I want to close tonight with a little poem I heard, supposedly written by a fourth grader. This little fourth grader is supposed to have

said these simple lines:

I am I. If I am not I, who is I? I am me, and no one can keep me from being me. If they can, I am kaput. I am washed up.

When I heard it first, I laughed. I read it again—"I am I, and if I am not I," who stands in my shoes, and answers my rollcall? If I am not I, who takes my place, who stands in my spot? "I am me, and no one can keep me from being me," for if they can, the whole purpose of the Declaration of Independence has been wiped out. It guaranteed me the right to be a man; to stand up and be counted; to stand for decent things and wholesome things; to rectify wrongs; to speak out. It gave me this right, and if I am not me, and if anybody can

keep me from being me, then I am kaput—I am washed up.

Many years ago I spent the night at my aunt's home in the east. I took from the shelves of her library a book, the history of McDonald County. I thumbed through the book and found an interesting story. It seems there had been a very bitter feeling in this community about a certain institution that was giving comfort to dark people that were moving toward Canada. The statement went out in that community that no individual of such point of view would be permitted to vote in a called election. Down in a warehouse, 19 men got together and put numbers in a hat from 1 to 19, and then reached in and drew out the number which was to determine the order in which they would march to the polls to vote. I found my grandfather's name in that list. These men, in effect, were saying, "I am I. If I am not I, who is I. I am me, and no one can keep me from being me." They were saying, "This is what I believe. I believe it so deeply, I will join with the 18 others and go and cast my vote for what I believe is right."

We have such a heritage. We need to reach down into the hearts of little children, wherever we find them, with whatever abilities they may have, with whatever handicaps they may have, with whatever potential. We need to do this so effectively that they will recognize the dignity of themselves, and rise up and express that dignity to the honor of their country; to the honor of their home; and to the joy of rich living in their own minds. These children we must teach that they may have enough to live on, but far better than that, they may

have enough to live for. Thank you.

Dr. Brill. Thank you, Dr. Bennett. I feel that the audience has warmly expressed its appreciation to you for your very inspiring message. Another person who has been thinking and working hard for 2 years, in addition to the members of the staff of the Oregon School, and waiting for this night to come, is our vice president and program chairman, Mr. Roy Stelle, and I know he has put together a fine program. I am sure you will agree with me, if you have had time to look over this program. I would like to call on Mr. Stelle for any

remarks he may have.

Mr. Stelle. Dr. Brill, and distinguished guests, and members of the convention, this part of the program provides the time for me to cover for my mistakes which I may have made, and to have one more chance to fix them up before this convention gets underway. At 8:30 each morning, we are going to ask that the workshop chairmen meet in the rooms they are to use that day, and there will be a person from this school to meet with you to answer any questions in preparation for the days meeting. I want to take this opportunity to thank all of those who have worked so hard to make this the fine convention that I am sure it is going to be.

Dr. Brill. It's customary for us to have certain resolutions proposed for our consideration at the business meeting, and individuals, or groups, may have certain resolutions they may want to have pre-

I have asked Mr. Jay Farman to serve as the chairman of our resolutions committee, and on that committee with him will be Mr. Harold Ratai, who is the principal of the School for the Deaf in Edmonton, Alberta, and Mrs. Harriett Gough, who is at the Kendall School in Washington, so if anyone has a resolution you will know who to give

(After Mr. Clatterbuck made some announcements of interest to

the convention, the meeting was adjourned.)

MONDAY, JUNE 26, 1961

LANGUAGE

Play shed—Section leader: Mrs. Donaldina Tennis, supervising teacher, California School, Riverside. 9-9:45 a.m.

Keynote speaker: Sister Jeanne d'Arc, St. Joseph's Institute for the Deaf, University City, Mo.

Interpreters: James R. Kirkley, Armin Turechek.

9:45-10 a.m.

Divide group into lower, middle, and upper school language sections.

10-10:45 a.m.

Upper school language: Robert F. Panara, Gallaudet College, Washing-

Interpreters: Roy Parks, Ed. Scouten.

Preschool dormitory living room-Middle school language: Miss Helen Dial, Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville.

Interpreters: Mrs. Emma Cunningham, Lloyd Parks.

School building—Lower school language: Mrs. Katherine Miner, Hosford School for the Deaf, Portland, Oreg.
Interpreters: Polly Shahan, Art Yates.

10:45-11:30 a.m.

School building-Morning session of workshops.

Upper school language:

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1. Mrs. Harriet Gough, supervising teacher, Kendall School, Washington, D.C.

Interpreter: Lloyd Parks.

2. Mr. Maurice Moriarty, principal, Hyde Park Boulevard School, Los Angeles, Calif.

Recorder: Mrs. Osie Brown, Hyde Park School.

Interpreter: Ed Scouten.

3. Mrs. Ruth Wiggin, classroom teacher, Washington School for the Deaf. Vancouver, Wash.

Recorder: Mrs. Mildred Neimi, Washington School.

Interpreter: Mrs. Emma Cunningham.

Middle school language:

1. Mr. Harold Ratai, principal, Alberta School for the Deaf, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.

Recorder: Mrs. Elsie Turechek, Riverside, California School.

Interpreter: Polly Shahan.

2. Mrs. Joyce Murphy, classroom teacher, Oklahoma School for the Deaf, Sulphur, Okla.

Recorder: Mrs. Gladys Stephens, Riverside, California School.

Interpreter: Art Yates.

3. Miss Alyce Thomas, supervising teacher, California School for the Deaf, Riverside.

Recorder: Barry L. Griffing, Riverside, California School.

Interpreter: Anne Davis.

Lower school language:

1. Mrs. Madeline Dutton, head teacher, Hosford School, Portland, Oreg. Recorder: Mrs. Elizabeth Prigg, Hosford School.

Interpreter: Mrs. William Fair. 2. Miss Eloise Kennedy, supervising teacher, New Mexico School for the Deaf, Santa Fe.

Recorder: Miss Eugenia Burnet, New Mexico School.

Interpreter: Edith Fauth.

3. Mrs. Gladys Waldorf, classroom teacher, Tucker-Maxon Oral School, Portland, Oreg.

Recorder: Mrs. Margaret Thoreson, Washington School.

Interpreter: Eugene Thomure.

1:15-2:15 p.m.

Afternoon session of language workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

LANGUAGE

(SISTER JEANNE D'ARC, St. Joseph's Institute for the Deaf, University City, Mo.)

Are your pupils language-lame? Perhaps that's a situation we can remedy to some extent. So let's consider it and see what remedies we can discover.

What is language? Why is it given to some, in greater or less degree, but withheld from others? Quite simply, language is one of man's greatest gifts, for it enables him to communicate, that is, to receive and express needs, feelings, and thoughts, be these thoughts on a high or low intellectual plane, be they expressed in beautifully poetic or quite prosaic vein. Plus this value of communication, language also provides a way of solving, more quickly, the various problems of life by furnishing abstract symbols, short cuts for reasoning. No

doubt, then, language is a great gift.

How is it distributed? To whom is it given? Given only to man, language, like any other of his gifts, is distributed along a continuum, and, as we would expect from such a continuum, small in number are the Dantes' and the Shakespeares, possessors of this gift, par excellence. Does this not fit our picture of continuum? Very few at an extreme?

But there are two extremes of a continuum. What of the other one, which indicates the number of individuals almost completely deprived of this gift? This extreme seems to indicate, to us in our profession, that the number of language-lame and language-deficient is legion. Should this be so? Does this fit our picture of a continuum? Many

at an extreme.

Could it be that many of the individuals who have a lifelong stay among the language-lame, among the language-deficient, might actually have the power to learn language, if only a minimum? Could it be that there is a way to reach, a way to teach individuals such as these, but that, as yet, we have not found the way? This I believe, that God, in His mercy, did not permit complete intellectual destruction of individuals such as these, because He expected us to do a certain amount of salvaging, which would enable these individuals to function as intellectual creatures, endowed with the gift of language and the power to use it as a tool. If this be the case, wouldn't it be wise for us to consider the language development of children who linguistically, sit up, creep, stand, and walk, when and how it was intended that they should? Then to compare the when-and-how development of these language-accomplished children with the whenand-how development of the language-lame children. To see wherein and whereabouts the language development of our pupils lags? To see if it is a necessary lag? If it might not be circumvented or rerouted?

When does language develop? It starts at birth when a child is born into our world of sound; it continues to develop until the age of 12, after which time it is polished and perfected. It starts in the cradle with a mother's murmured endearments and continues with every word spoken in the child's presence. The child is given familiarity with language long before he attempts to use it. In this way language usage develops; through hearing, spoken language becomes

meaningful; through use, it becomes a tool.

Hearing language, then, is a necessary preliminary basic to understanding and using language. Listening familiarizes the child with

language patterns spoken to and around him.

Language spoken to a baby, directed toward a baby, is geared to his ability to understand, and contains, therefore, a minimum of vocabulary and sentence structure, with a maximum of repetition. The language a child hears is tailored to the situation until the tailoring becomes no longer necessary. Without our actually being aware of it, we feed the child with custom-built, spoken language, meaningful spoken language, gradually increasing the vocabulary and length of sentences as the child's intelligent response to speech and language indicates that he has absorbed and understood it. The more language that is provided for the child's language listening, the

more he receives, and the more quickly he reaches the saturation point of language overflow which marks the beginning of expressive lan-

guage, i.e., language which the child uses to express himself.

Statistics tell us that by the time the child has reached the age of 30 months, 89 percent of his speech is comprehensible; by the time he has reached the age of 48 months, practically all of his speech is comprehensible; and by the time he has reached the age of 6, he has acquired the use of 7,186 words and most of the adult language patterns.

This, then, is when and how language develops in the language accomplished child. This, then, is a picture of the language development of the language-accomplished child and presents quite a criterion for us to use in setting goals for the language-lame child whose pic-

ture of language development is quite different.

From the moment of birth, the language-lame child has been deprived of the language listening he is expected to absorb, either because of loss of hearing or ability to structure what he hears. Because the usual avenues of hearing and structuring have been closed to him, seeing is his avenue of language learning; language must become meaningful to him visually rather than auditorially.

From the moment of his birth until the time when his parents become aware of his disability, the language-lame child is losing language listening. The amount of lost time varies with individual cases, but even a short time means a great loss of receptive language.

Then what happens when the hearing loss becomes apparent? Instead of speeding up language production to compensate in some small part for the loss of language listening the child has thus far sustained, we, who provide the language listening, shut it off, slow it up. Instead of giving it a boost, we hinder it; instead of providing maximum structured language listening, we minimize. The language-lame child is given less language listening than a hearing child. He needs more.

In addition to this, because the avenue of his language learning has been changed from hearing with his ears to hearing with his eyes, some parents and relatives gesture to him; some talk to him but not naturally. Thus it is, that in a deprived language environment such

as this, he develops into a language-lame child.

If he is put into school at the age of 5, by the age of 6, in 1 year, he will hardly have acquired most of the adult language patterns as have his language-accomplished brothers and sisters. And yet this is

what we would like him to do.

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Language learning should be the same for all. It should follow the same road, progress through the same stages, varying only in rate and amount according to native endowment and opportunity. Native endowment we cannot change but we can utilize it and teach the child to utilize it. Most especially must we do this with our pupils whose behavior indicates intellectual endowment adequate and sufficient for language learning, but whose language learning indicates deprivation either because of their loss of hearing or ability to structure. We must give these children a wealth of receptive language. We must saturate them with language until it starts to overflow, until they start to use it.

Experience tells us that a flat tire affects the operation of our car, our entire car, not just a part of it; and it affects the operations to

such an extent that the car stops. Experience has the same story to tell about a broken chain on a bicycle. In other words, experience tells that a broken part damages the whole, and the more important the part, the more extensive the damage. Both car and bicycle, stopped because of broken parts, stayed stopped until the broken part was located and repaired. Mending the broken part mends the machine and restores it to its usual operation, though sometimes not its usual efficient operation. Experience, therefore, tells us that a car is a unit, that a bicycle is a unit, and that each operates as a unit because of the integration of all its parts.

So too is a human being a unit. A human being is a machine unlike any other, possessing parts and integration more complicated than anything in the universe. A broken part in this machine damages the unit; any part in this complicated machine is an important part,

and when broken causes extensive damage to the unit.

Our pupils are human beings, possessing powers given only to human beings; one such power, language functioning, is a broken part. Because their language equipment does not function properly, these human beings do not operate as they should, as whole persons.

Herein lies God-given opportunity. Opportunity for you and me. To make a language-lame child a language-accomplished child. Wouldn't it be wonderful if we could repair this defective part and mend the whole? If only we could, but we cannot. For only One

can repair this part, its Designer.

However, upon analyzing the picture in which we compared the language development of our pupils with others, we are encouraged to realize that it is possible to make a language-lame child a language-accomplished child, simply by structuring his language listening according to what is given and how it is given, according to the type of sentence and vocabulary given, and by orienting it to the visual rather than the auditory. Such type of language listening, a task to which our pupils are equal, would be a delight because it would be a success, would be absorbed and understood because it would be meaningful.

This is the way, then, in general, that we shall give our languagelame child a wealth of language listening. And here is exactly how

we shall provide it.

We will talk to the child, talk to him simply and repeatedly, using one simple sentence in a meaningful situation, saying it again and again in the same situation. At first the child will understand only the situation, and not, as yet, the accompanying words. When a situation reoccurs, we will use the same language pattern that we used the first time it occurred. Again we repeat the sentence several times during the situation. The first few times it will be only the situation that has meaning, but if we follow this procedure faithfully, the child will soon learn meaningful speech-reading patterns which will transfer to like, as well as identical, situations.

To illustrate: When it is time to stop a lesson, we might say "Close your book." The child knows it is time to stop. He understands the situation, but not, as yet, the speech pattern that he is seeing. We repeat, "That's all. Close your book." If we do this after every lesson, within a short time the child will have such an understanding of the speech pattern and the language pattern, that it can be used

apart from the original situation, that it will have meaning of its own,

that it will give meaning to a novel situation.

Many times it is a good idea to write what we are going to say when it is something new. This way the child has a written, as well as an oral, picture of the sentence when we say it thereafter. The written picture secures and fixes the speech-reading patterns as well as the reading patterns and furthermore, encourages the child to use natural

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This then is how we shall give the language-deprived child more language listening, meaningful language listening, receptive language. It will not be haphazard. It will be planned, carefully planned. Each new language pattern will be based on previous ones and developed in a progressive pattern. Each speech-reading pattern will be introduced simply, gradually being carried to a higher level of performance. Furthermore because we shall have made the language listening simple and structured; we shall have made it easy and accessible, within the child's capabilities. With this he will early taste success, which will provide motivation for continuing success. This is how, then, that we provide more language listening for the language-

lame child, more language listening of natural language.

In what does natural language consist? What is natural language? That's easy. Natural language consists of the kind of language that you and I hear and use every hour of the day. If we listen, and listen carefully, we shall find that natural language follows a pattern. We shall listen for this pattern and use it to plan our structuring, our teaching of natural language. Using a pattern should prove very helpful. It does. Using a pattern with large parts should prove even more helpful. It does. Think about building a house. Would a beginner be able to build one if you gave him a pile of lumber, some glass, some cement mix, and a lot of equipment? Probably not. But he might be able to build a prefabricated house, in which he gets, readymade bigger, parts. A beginner might be able to construct such a house.

So it is with language learning. So it is with sentence construction. We put into unskilled hands, single words, infinitesimal parts of language, the smallest parts of sentences, and then we ask that a complete, correct sentence be constructed. We ask the impossible. But if, into these beginners' hands, we put phrases, clauses, bigger sections of sentences, wouldn't sentence construction become easy, quick, and accurate? Why not, then, in language learning, use a pattern with large parts This explains the purpose of the pattern method, i.e., language, structured and patterned, into large enough sections to

facilitate receptive and expressive language.

The pattern method starts with basic patterns, which are commands. Listen. Listen to the natural language that is spoken around you. You hear commands, commands of verbs and nouns. Basic and practical. Commands to which it is possible to add, either before or after, supplementary patterns which provide variation in the sentence structure, commands to which it is possible to add, either before or after, smaller, qualifying, patterns which shade, which shift the meaning originally expressed. Commands, therefore, are the best possible construction with which to start and with which to build. They are

easy to understand. They are easy to use. Use them as language listening, i.e., repeatedly, in meaningful situations. Use them to provide the wealth of structured language listening that we have mentioned. Build a list of commands. Make it endless, but make it meaningful.

Listen. Listen to some commands.

Notice the simplicity of vocabulary and sentence structure.

Use your head. Study your geography. Name the continents. Watch the spelling. Check the punctuation. Fill in the blanks.
Underline the answer.
Cross out the wrong one.

Trim the hedge.

Notice the key construction, verb, what.

Greet the visitors.

Answer the door.

Receive a telegram.

Buy some postcards.

Get some stamps.

Buy some stamps.

Omit the n.
Do an experiment.
Have an operation.
Have a blood test.
Have a checkup.
Have a physical.

Notice the parts of speech, verb, adjective, noun.

Watch your diet. Sign your name. Wear your glasses. Hand in your work. Complete your work. Deliver the mail. Admire the baby. Shine your shoes. Powder your nose.

Notice the syntax, subject, predicate, direct object.

Try on dresses.
Plant flowers.
Sell stocks.
Put up signs.
Buy shoes.

Read books. Write letters. Bake cookies. Erase mistakes.

After a command has been well fixed, as is evidenced by the child's prompt, effortless, carrying out of the command, require an answer, a short one. That's what we do. Listen. Father said, "Mow the lawn." You said, "All right, Dad." And you did it. Mother said, "Answer the phone." You said, "All right, Mother." And you did it. This provides the cue for our first short answer. "All right."

With one exception, which shall be mentioned later, we teach the child to reply, "All right," to a command as soon as he has the necessary speech sounds. We teach him to reply. We teach him to use language as a tool, as quickly and as well as possible. That's how we did it. Through hearing, we understood language; through use, it became our tool.

Short answers initiate language overflow and mark the beginning of expressive language. They are, moreover, very handy devices constantly in use in our world of language. We use short answers whenever it is possible to do so. Of that, there can be no doubt. Listen.

age oroene it Put this on my desk, will you, All right, Sister.

please?
Don't open the window.
Can you fix the television?
Are you tired?
Did you go to the store?
Can Joyce drive a car?

I won't.
No, I cannot.
Yes, I am.
Yes, I did.
No, she cannot. Neither can
Mary.

May Mary and Susan go outside? Is John sick? Can John ride a bike? Did John and Paul go swimming? Will Mother and Daddy take a vacation? Would you like some canda?

Would you like some candy?
Does Leola do her homework?

No, they may not.
No, he is not.
Yes, he can. So can Paul.
Yes, they did.
No, they will not.
Yes, I would.

Jim doesn't.

Yes, she does. So does Mary, but

Will you hand me a Kleenex, please?

Are boys rough? Yes, they are.

Have you ever been in California? No, I never have.

Have you ever been in Washing
Yes, I have. Once.

ton, D.C.?
Have you ever seen the Washing- No, I never have.
ton Monument?

Has Kenneth ever been to Chi- Not that I know of. cago?

These are examples of short answers. They are a part of natural language; they belong to it. It's natural to use them. If this is so, why don't we teach our pupils to use short answers, instead of burdening them with the problem of replying to a question using a complete sentence, taxing to the utmost their slowly developing power of handling language? Why do we compel a "language lame child" to use a complete sentence is not necessary to communicate meaning, to use a complete sentence in a situation from which we would not expect a complete answer reply from a hearing adult? Why do it the hard way when there is an easy way?

Because you know how to walk, do you exhaust yourself by walking downtown when you could take a bus or your car? And if you didn't know how to walk or were just learning, would you attempt such an expedition? Certainly not. And yet, sometimes, I think that is what we expect our pupils to do. Those who are just learning to walk are those for whom we plan hikes. And even though such expeditions be utterly impossible and can result only in failure, which they do, we still attempt them and call them learning problems.

Let's not give our pupils tasks beyond their accomplishments. Let's give them easy ones, within their capabilities. Let's borrow from natural language and use short answers. They are easy. Only a minimum of speech is required. But they're not too easy, because a maximum of understanding is necessary.

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ing onenten. In general, short answers introduce the child to many language skills and provide a framework upon which to build. They acquaint the child with a particular question form and familiarize him with it to such an extent that certain questions trigger off certain replies of correct, spontaneous speech. Short answers provide the language listening that eventually results in the child's use of the question form.

Socially short answers prove a boon in many ways—by teaching the child to speech-read ideas which are clothed in the questions and replies spoken to and around him; by supplying a speech reply instead of a smile reply, speech that is understandable because it has been taught and fixed, speech that is automatic, spontaneous, accented, and even inflected, speech that is uttered before the child has had a thought about becoming tense; and by fostering a sense of humor, encouraged from the first short answer construction taught, a construction that was made absurd and ridiculous in order that it be obviously funny and thus insure understanding, a construction that was followed by more and more of the same, with the humor becoming less and less obvious and more and more subtle.

Scholastically, short answers are excellent. Use them for auditory training. Use them for reading. Use them for drilling vocabulary, introducing new and fixing old. Use short answers for teaching parts of speech, and most particularly, use short answers for drilling school subjects, such as history and geography. Put all your review mate-

rial in short answers.

Then, too, short answers are invaluable in reading in which parts of sentences are often understood. Besides, they are supplementary patterns which will, after having been well established as a response, be combined with basic ones to build sentences. For example:

Will you take a vacation?

I would like to.
I don't have time to.
It would be fun to.
I can't possibly.
I might.
I'm going to.
I plan to.

Would you like to be an astronaut?

Most certainly.
It would be exciting to.
It's a marvelous idea!
It's a wonderful idea!
What an exciting thought!
What a thrilling idea!

Then later we would have:

I would like to take a vacation.
I don't have time to take a vacation.
It would be fun to take a vacation.
I can't possibly take a vacation.
I might take a vacation.
I'm going to take a vacation.
I plan to take a vacation.

With variations such as these:

Most certainly I would like to be an astronaut.

It would be exciting to be an astronaut. It's a marvelous idea to be an astronaut. It's a wonderful idea to be an astronaut.

What an exciting thought! To be an astronaut!

What a thrilling idea! To be an astronaut!

Just thinking about being an astronaut gives me goose bumps.

Being an astronaut is a marvelous idea.

Being an astronaut sounds like a wonderful idea.

Use short answers, then as part of your language-listening program, your language-use program. They're easy, but not too easy; and look what they can do.

We have thus far discussed language, its development in the "language-accomplished child," its development in the "language-lame child," wherein the development of the two differs, how greatly it

differs and why.

Comparing these two pictures of language development, we cited discrepancies previously unnoticed, discrepancies extrinsic to the child, discrepancies existing in his environment, discrepancies of meager and unstructured language listening. Couldn't we right these by supplying more language listening, better structured, visually oriented? In particular, by using a pattern method based on commands, a pattern method to which we add, either before or after the basic pattern, smaller, qualifying patterns which shade, which shift the meaning originally expressed?

We think we could. And then couldn't we build up a list of commands, quickly yet carefully—commands practical and useful for everyday life? We think we could. We can. We have.

We cited examples of the first basic pattern and followed them by an explanation of the short answers required by the commands and questions in our pattern method. We have, then, thus far, mentioned only one basic pattern. Now the second one:

Verb. where.

Go to the movie. Go home. Go to school. Go outside. Go to Chicago. Go downtown. Go to church. Go upstairs. Go to the attic. Go downstairs. Go fishing. Go to the laundry. Go to the dormitory. Go swimming. Go to the dining-room. Go bowling. Go to the kitchen. Go hunting. Go to the pavilion. Go horseback riding. Go to the doctor. Go to dinner. Go to supper. Go to the dentist. Go to lunch. Go to the bakery. Go to the garage. Go to mother. Go to daddy. Go to the store. Go to Grandmother.

This pattern can be put to immediate use in news and letterwriting, and quickly eliminates errors commonly found in the use of the verbs,

to go and to come.

Another basic pattern which remedies chronic errors in a deaf child's language is verb, what, where, i.e., Put it on the table. This teaches the child to use the direct object, it, with put. The child will say, "Put it on the table," instead of the usual, "Put on the table." In working with this pattern, change only the where at first and use the same pronoun for the direct object, e.g., put it on the table, in the dormitory, in the attic, in the dining room, in the laundry, etc.

Where should have been taught previously so that the only new learning problem is the arrangement, the construction. Later on, we can use Put this, Put that, Put these, Put those, Put them. Also when the construction has been well fixed, it is all right to introduce new vocabularly through this pattern. And remember, that with

all of these, we require short answers.

Be alert. That's our next basic pattern. Examples of this would

be:

Be polite. Be helpful. Be careful. Don't be sassy. Be thoughtful. Don't be mean. Be kind. Don't be rude. Be courteous. Don't be troublesome. Be obedient. Don't be impolite. Be considerate.

We continue to require short answers, but with this construction we require the reply, "I will," because we feel that determination is usually expressed in replying to this command, and also because it builds for the sentence, I will be careful, I will be polite, etc. The verb, adjective pattern is excellent for drilling adjectives, for keeping newly learned ones in mind, and constantly refreshing previously learned ones. Each new adjective learned, is, if possible, put into this pattern.

Verb, whom, e.g., Help Mary, another basic pattern, an important one in constant use, is often used as a supplementary pattern. Other

examples are:

Tell Mary. Ask Mary. Show Marv. Let Mary. Watch Mary.

This pattern can be used in many different ways. As a supplementary pattern we might have:

Tell Mary to answer the door. Let Mary be helpful Watch Mary swim. Let Mary

put it on the table.

Ask Mary to throw it away. Watch Mary throw the ball.

Babies are always taught to jump, run, and bow. That's a basic pattern, too. Just verb. Group these verbs according to the prepositional phrases that usually follow particular verbs.

Stop at the store. at the bakery. at church. at school.

Don't laugh at Mary. at John. at anyone. it's rude. Run to the window. upstairs. outside.

Jump into the car. into the tub. into bed.

Don't jump on the sofa. on the bed.

These are combinations which build single sentences; it is also possible to combine the combinations to construct paragraphs. Here is one:

Let's turn on the television and watch Billy's favorite show, "Myron Marvel Rides Again." Look! They're going to hold up the stage-coach, as it comes through the pass. They roll down a boulder to block the path. It frightens the horses, paralyzes the driver, and throws the passengers into a panic. The bandits gallop up to the stagecoach, snatch the money bags, turn and—Myron Marvel, who commands the bandits, "Drop the money bags! Move the boulder! And tells the passengers, "Resume your trail to Oregon!"

In constructing paragraphs, it is a good idea to make up a list of commands with pertinent vocabulary and use them to build your sentences. Thus, if you are planning a trip, this list of commands might

be devised:

Check the oil.
Buy some gas.
Change the tire.
Check the tires.
Put some air into the tires.
Stop at the filling station.
Move over.
Keep the speed limit.
Pass on the right.
Watch for the sign that says

Don't speed.

Be careful of trucks.

of the shoulder of
the road.

of the curve ahead.
of hills.

Don't pass on hills.

Don't cross the yellow line.

Dim your lights. Look at the scenery. Listen to the radio. Stop for lunch. Stretch your legs. Keep your eye out for-Watch the road. Obey the signals. Pack a lunch. Check the map. Get a map. Get a nap. Drive slowly. Drive carefully. Drive with caution. Drive at your own risk. Don't break the speed limit. Watch the yellow line.

With a list of supplementary patterns which could be used with one basic pattern this paper is here terminated in the hope that it will, in some way, lead each of us to new considerations of language and its development. Each person has been placed on earth to do a special work; our special work is teaching deaf children. Just think! From all eternity God ordained that you and I should teach deaf children. He needs us in His work. Let's not fail Him!

Try to make a cake.
Don't forget to make a cake.
Help me make a cake.
Please make a cake.

Let me make a cake.

Remind me to bake a cake.

Ask Mary to help you bake a cake. She will. She will be happy to.

Don't bake a cake. Don't bother to bake a cake. Let's bake a cake.

I want to bake a cake. I like to bake a cake. I try to bake a cake.

I promised to bake a cake for your birthday.

I plan to bake a cake.
I intend to bake a cake.
She likes to bake a cake.

I forgot to bake a cake. I started to bake a cake. I meant to bake a cake.

I began to bake a cake. I planned to bake a cake.

I failed to bake a cake because—

I tried to bake a cake but——I agreed to bake a cake for——.

I promised to bake a cake.

I shall bake a cake.
I will bake a cake.
I can bake a cake.
I might bake a cake.
I could bake a cake.
I may bake a cake.
I must bake a cake.
I should bake a cake.
I would bake a cake.

I would be happy to bake a cake.
Use cake mix to bake a cake.
I would be disappointed if you did not bake a cake.

I would rather bake a cake than

bake cookies.

I would like to bake a cake.

I have the time to bake a cake. I did not bake a cake.

I did not have a chance to bake

a cake.

I did not have an opportunity to bake a cake.

To bake a cake is fun.

To bake a cake is interesting. To bake a cake is more fun

It's my job to bake a cake for mother's birthday.

It's my turn to bake a cake for mother's birthday.

It's a good idea to bake a cake.

It's too warm a day to bake a cake.

I'm supposed to bake a cake

I'm unable to bake a cake. There are no eggs.

I'm determined to bake a cake if it's at all possible.

I am too busy to bake a cake. I am so busy that I cannot bake a cake.

I will not be able to bake a cake. I'm going to bake a cake.

I feel like baking a cake. I am baking a cake. I am busy baking a cake. I am finished baking a cake.

I am waiting for you to bake a cake.

I finally succeeded in baking a cake.

I am interested in baking a cake. ing a cake. I highly approve of your baking a cake.

I am tired of baking cakes.

Did you see any sign of mother baking a cake?

Did you finally get the hang of

baking a cake?

Did you ever think of baking a

Didn't you think of baking a cake?

Won't you try to make a cake? Won't you help me make a cake. cake?

Won't you ask Mary to help

you bake a cake?

Why won't you try to make a cake?

Won't you please make a cake? Let's bake a cake, shall we? Bake a cake, will you please? Won't you promise to bake a

cake?

Won't you agree to bake a cake?

Won't it be fun to bake a cake? Won't it be your turn to bake a cake?

Won't it be possible to bake a cake?

Won't you be able to bake a cake? cake?

I am thrilled about baking a cake.

I am thrilled to be able to bake a cake.

I am excited about baking a cake.

I am proud of you for baking a

I'm grateful to you for baking a cake.

Explain the steps in baking a

Don't bother about baking a cake? cake. I'll buy one.

I enjoy baking a cake.

I greatly appreciate your bak-

don't mind baking a cake. I had trouble baking a cake. You picked the wrong day for baking a cake.

Neal has a way of baking a

cake.

I can't get the hang of baking a cake.

I saw no sign of Mary baking a cake.

I had thought of baking a cake but then

Start baking a cake.

Never mind about baking a

Baking a cake is fun.

Baking a cake is interesting. I can hardly wait to bake a

I can't begin to tell you how much fun it is to bake a cake.

Do you ever make a cake? Do you ever bake cake?

Don't you ever bother to make a cake?

Do you want to bake a cake? Do you like to bake a cake? Do you plan to bake a cake? Do you intend to bake a cake? Don't you want to bake a cake? Don't you like to bake a cake? John, don't you plan to bake a

Mary, don't you intend to bake a cake?

Did you forget to bake a cake? Did you start to bake a cake? Didn't you start to bake a cake? Didn't you intend to bake a

Did you fail to bake a cake? Did you try to bake a cake? Did you agree to bake a cake? Did you promise to bake a cake? Didn't you agree to bake a cake? Didn't you promise to bake a

Shall I bake a cake? May I bake a cake? Must I bake a cake? Should I bake a cake? Ought I bake a cake?

Would you bake a cake? I'd be a cake?

happy to.

Would you rather bake a cake or

Did you have the time to bake do. a cake?

Didn't you have the time to bake a cake?

Did you get a chance to bake a

Didn't you get a chance to bake a cake?

Is it fun to bake a cake?

Is it more fun to bake a cake than to ———?

Is it your job to bake a cake?
Is it your turn to bake a cake?
Is it a good idea to bake a cake?
Is it possible to bake a cake in 15
minutes?

Is it too warm to bake a cake?

Are you supposed to bake a cake?

Am I supposed to bake a cake?
Are you willing to bake a cake?
Are you anxious to bake a cake?
Are you too busy to bake a cake?
Are you going to bake a cake?
Do you like to bake a cake?
Are you baking a cake?

Are you finished baking a cake? Are you waiting for me to bake a cake? If so, don't bother. I'm not going to.

Did you finally succeed in baking a cake?

Are you interested in baking a cake?

Do you approve of my baking a cake?

Are you tired of baking a cake?

Are you thrilled about baking a cake?

How do you feel about baking a

Are you excited about being able to bake a cake?

Are you proud of me for baking a cake?

Did you explain the steps in baking a cake?

Didn't you explain the steps in baking a cake?

Didn't you bother about baking

I'll have to buy one.

Don't you enjoy baking a cake? Do you enjoy baking a cake? I

Don't you mind baking a cake?
Do you mind baking a cake?
It's troublesome for me.

Did you enjoy baking a cake? Didn't you enjoy baking a cake? Did you have trouble baking a ake?

Didn't you pick the wrong day for baking a cake?

Won't you be willing to bake a cake?

Wouldn't you be willing to bake a cake?

Shouldn't you be willing to bake a cake?

Won't you be too busy to bake a cake?

Won't you be so busy that

Won't you feel like baking a cake after you ———.

Won't you be busy baking a cake about ——.

Won't you be finished baking a cake by ——.

Won't you enjoy baking a cake? Isn't it wonderful to bake a cake?

Isn't it fun to bake a cake? Wasn't it fun to bake a cake?

EXCLAMATORY, SIMPLE

How wonderful it is to bake a cake!

How wonderful it is to know how to bake a cake!

How wonderful it is to be able to bake a cake!

How provoking it is not to know how to bake a cake!

How thrilled I am to be able to bake a cake!

How happy I am to bake a cake for you!

How happy I am to bake a cake for your party!

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How thrilled I am about seeing Mary bake a cake!

What an ideal day to bake a you're not able to.

What fun to bake a cake!

What a delight to bake a cake! How surprised Mary will be if you would rather not. we bake a cake!

IMPERATIVE, COMPLEX, PRESENT

Try to learn how to bake a cake. Don't forget to bake a cake if mind. you have time to.

Don't forget to bake a cake if manage the time.

you have the time.

Ask Mary to help you bake a eggs. cake if you want to.

If you don't want to do it all by vourself, ask Mary.

Ask Mary to bake a cake for you if you can't do it.

Ask Mary to bake a cake for you if you don't have the time.

Ask Mary to bake a cake for you if you don't want to do it.

Bake a cake if you want to. Bake a cake if you please.

Let me bake a cake if you're going out and don't have the time. Let me bake a cake if you don't

feel well. I'd be happy to do it. Remind me to bake a cake if you

think of it.

Remind me to bake a cake if you remember.

Remind me to bake a cake if I forget to.

Remind me to bake a cake if it slips my mind.

case it should slip my mind.

Don't bake a cake if you don't want to. I will do it for you.

Don't bother to bake a cake if you're too busy.

Don't bother to bake a cake if you're so busy that you can't spare the time.

Don't bother to bake a cake if

Don't bother to bake a cake if you're too tired.

Don't bother to bake a cake if

Don't bother to bake a cake if you would rather-

Let's bake a cake if we have the time.

Let's bake a cake if you don't

Let's bake a cake if you can

Let's bake a cake if there are

DECLARATIVE COMPLEX

I want to bake a cake if I have the time.

I want to bake a cake if I can manage the time.

I want to bake a cake if I'm not too busy.

I want to bake a cake if I don't get too tired.

I want to bake a cake if you don't mind.

I want to bake a cake if I may work in the kitchen.

I want to bake a cake if I may use the kitchen.

I want to bake a cake if we're going to have a party.

I want to bake a cake if you're sure it's all right.

For my Mother's birthday I'd like to bake a cake if it's at all possible to do so.

For my Mother's birthday I'd Remind me to bake a cake in like to bake a cake if I have the time.

> For my Mother's birthday I'll try to bake a cake.

DIRECT ENGLISH LEARNING IN THE UPPER SCHOOL

(ROBERT F. PANARA, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.)

It is with some trepidation that I undertake the role of critic today before so many experts present in this language section. I am conscious of the fact that I have spent only 4 years at teaching English in a school for the deaf and that it has been 12 long years since I last grappled with the many problems involved in teaching language at the upper school level. Accordingly, I believe that you teachers are far more qualified to talk on the subject, and I feel like—like the boy whose father thought he ought to be told something of the facts of life. This took a lot of courage, of course, but finally the father invited the boy into the living room after supper, and, after some hesitation, he said: "Son, I should like to discuss with you some of the facts of life." The boy answered: "That's fine, father, what would you like to know?"

Perhaps I might start discussing some of those problems that are more familiar to me—those language problems that exist at the "super school level," or college level. By doing so, we may be able to compare experiences, offer ideas, and effect a closer integration relative to the purpose and function of teaching language to advanced deaf students, quite a few of whom may someday be admitted to Gallaudet College. At the same time, we may be able to recognize those characteristic weaknesses which are carried over from the school into college.

Let us begin by taking a look at existing conditions from the front of the classroom, which is to say from the teacher's viewpoint. While it is apparent that the average freshman and sophomore student at Gallaudet manages to pass the courses in English composition and the humanities, or Great Books program, his performance leaves much to be desired. For one thing, there are those reading deficiencies which serve to cloud his progress and detract from the cultural and practical values of studying literature and other examples of fine writing. Because of certain limitations in vocabulary, the student is no little handicapped in the attempt to plumb the full depth and vein of that rich mine of language and ideas encountered in the classics. Thus, he has only a vague notion of the function of expression and its relation to the writer's meaning or point of view, and, although he may understand the action, the plot, and the general depiction of characters in a novel or a play, he can seldom see the element of satire, humor, or tragic pity which establishes the mood and tone. And, in the case of poetry, his reaction is even more negative. Because of its compressed language and figurative expression, poetry is something of an enigma to the average freshman and sophomore at Gallaudet. He not only fails to get the tone, the mood, the image of the poem, but he will wholly miss the meaning at times. I leave it to your imagination to picture the reaction of the average student after reading that type of imagistic poetry in which meaning is disregarded in favor of ideas and nuances of thought and feeling.

Yet the point is that such writing is not only confined to poetry. It will be found in almost any prose work of a nonfactual and nonscientific nature—from the simplest fable to the most complex novel or essay—and the same phenomena are conspicuously evident in magazine and newspaper features such as are found in the Reader's Digest, Time

magazine, the Atlantic Monthly, and the Sunday supplements of our newspapers. Perhaps it is only in the advertising field that these students are appreciably affected by such qualities of expressions as tone, mood, color, and emphasis. Certainly, our modern day methods of advertising in print and on television are amazingly successful and all-inclusive. By making such clever and imaginative use of the graphic, the pictorial, and the animated cartoon, they always seem to succeed where we teachers usually fail in the attempt to excite the senses and evoke responsive ideas and attitudes toward the main promotional purpose.

Naturally enough, these limitations in reading comprehension and vocabulary are transferred to such exercises in writing as serve to supplement the study of literature. From a thematic and stylistic viewpoint, these compositions seldom measure up to expectations, that is, they are not what one would expect of college students. I am dealing with the average writing performance here, and this average is closer to D than it is to C. This represents poor if not failing work, and it should be noted that these assignments invariably draw a grade of C for mechanics of language and D for expression of contents.

The usual procedure is to give these students a list of questions for writing based on the weekly reading and lecture in the humanities program. These questions aim to test the student's ability to comprehend what he has read and then express its substance or content in a manner that is clear, convincing, and attractive. The usual result, however, becomes one of the most difficult of papers to grade—a paper which is mechanically correct, in kind, but wholly devoid of content and interest. In brief, it has no color, no tone, no personality or life of its own. Or to draw inspiration from one of our most successful promotions in advertising, it has the characteristics of "purity", but it has no "body and flavor".

Why is this so? What can be done to improve the "body and

Why is this so? What can be done to improve the "body and flavor"? Possibly, we could learn something by viewing things as they are seen and sensed from the rear of the classroom, or from the

student's point of view.

The most common complaints of our freshmen and sophomores concern the following, with reference to their experiences in the various schools for the deaf:

1. The overemphasis upon the teaching of grammar at the neglect of practice in writing, vocabulary development, and word usage.

2. Unfamiliarity with difficult works of literature.

3. Dearth or absence of lively and rewarding classroom discussion based upon outside readings.

4. Lack of integration relative to subject matter learned in class

and practice of language skills.

It is possible to believe that some of these complaints have been exaggerated and that the student has been using them as a pretext to cover up his own lethargy or shortcomings. Still, when they are voiced by serious-minded, hardworking, and conscientious students—and their number is quite imposing—I believe there is some real justification therein.

I will not be so rash as to assume that I know all the answers. However, over the years of teaching, I have developed some notions about finding ways and means of directing English learning in the upper school. These notions do not only concern the ideal of

preparing potential candidates for admission to Gallaudet College, but they also apply to the practical need of making English learning a meaningful and a rewarding experience to all deaf students

in the upper school.

To begin with, I believe that English classes could shift their emphasis from grammar to rhetoric and the study of literature or as it is actually written. Above the intermediate level, language becomes increasingly complex, rich, and varied in expression. Yet, it is only the rare or independent student who somehow becomes aware of this change—the ideal student who goes on to read books, and magazines and newspapers far beyond class requirements. The majority are still slavishly imitating the language of diagram which seeks to analyze isolated specimens of language that are artificially contrived. And after the act of writing a short paragraph or composition on a given topic, it should not be surprising to find that the student has composed as many as six little statements prettily strung together, like beads on a string, yet in a manner of expression that is most artificial and unnatural.

Could it be that we teachers of older deaf students are victims of our environment, of our close proximity to the rigorous methodology of repetition and parrot-play pursued at the primary and intermediate levels? Granted that the methods of teaching phonics and articulation are useful to the development of speech, lipreading, and vocabulary, I see no sense in projecting their forced and endless repetition when used to teach subject matter and language skills in the advanced grades. Yet, that is what many teachers are still doing in placing undue emphasis on grammar, based on the repetitive study of simple and pat grammatical models. In reality, grammar and syntex should be related to rhetoric and the art of expression. In other words, the detail must be a means and not an end in itself. The teacher who tries to drive in the detail for its own sake, or for the sake of the method, will find his work difficult and its results disappointing.

All of us, I am sure, will admit that the class hours which live longest in memory are those in which students participate in spontaneous and animated discussion as the result of some stimulating story, idea, or factual discovery. I strongly doubt whether a fixed plan of teaching or application of a rigorous methodology can guarantee such memorable hours. The wise teacher learns that he can get students to realize mistakes in grammar and expression far more quickly and profitably during such opportunities for discussion wherein subject matter and English learning are related in mean-

ingful and interesting patterns.

It is for this desired integration of purpose, content, and method that I should like to see the emphasis shifted from grammar to rhetoric and the study of literature. Assuming that the student comprehends the nature and function of the various parts of speech, he still has to establish the feel of a sentence containing such grammatical units. More attention to the study of interesting rhetorical models—such as Marc Antony's funeral oration in Julius Caesar; Garibaldi's speech "To His Soldiers" and Napoleon's "Farewell To the Old Guard;" Jonathan Edwards' fiery sermon, "Sinners In The Hands Of An Angry God," and Lincoln's moving "Gettysburg Address"—all these should prove a most stimulating and valuable means of helping students to establish this feel of words and phrases, of

clauses and sentences, of mood and tone. At the same time, not only are they comparatively easy to understand but they are also suitably

brief and compact for homework study and analysis in class.

Evidently, therefore, the great stress in teaching older students to write well would be to have them read many examples of fine writing, or of writing with a fixed mood and purpose in mind, accompanied by discussion and analyses of the various rhetorical devices used to gain expressiveness—such as the balanced phrase, the coordinate series, parallelism or antithesis in expressing two or more ideas in a sentence, and freshness or originality in word usage. The more the number of reading repetitions, the more familiar the student becomes with good writing style and natural expression.

To quote the words of Coleridge, "Such as the life is, such is the form"—the two qualities are an organic whole. As the student absorbs the content or "life force" of an interesting story, poem, or play, some vital parts of its form and qualities of expression will make their due impression upon the mind and memory. This is nothing new. All our history and literature reflects the art of many soldiers, statesmen, philosophers, and writers who seldom profited from the detailed study of grammar. What they did to realize such a mastery of language was to read hundreds upon hundreds of great works, absorbing the style of individual writers and unconsciously imitating them in their own writings.

One of these masters of the art was Jonathan Swift, whose definition of a good writing style is still a classic: "Proper words in proper places." By "proper places," he undoubtedly meant that one must know his grammar in order to write correctly. At the same time, however, one must be careful to select and use words properly if he is going to make any sense at all or present ideas and facts in clear,

convincing, and attractive language.

Studies have shown that although the deaf seem to experience little difficulty in learning grammar and applying its rules to simple statements, they are woefully weak in such matters as style and word usage. One of these studies deserves particular mention; namely, "An Analysis of Errors In Written Compositions By Deaf Children, by Dr. William H. Thompson. After analyzing 16,000 examples of composition from 800 deaf pupils attending 10 different schools, Thompson concluded that-

It would appear more necessary for the teacher to spend more time and effort on the right use of words rather than on the treatment of structural grammar. as the written expression of deaf pupils is more likely to be mechanically correct than it is to have the words correctly used.

This revelation should come as no surprise. It is related to the fact that grammar can be independent of the lexical meanings of the words which are put into the same sentence.2 In other words, we can often spot a sentence that is grammatically correct but which makes practically no sense at all, or which is so flat and colorless that it contains no element of interest. This truth is vividly pointed out by Prof. Charles Carpenter Fries in his great work of scholarship, "The Structure Of English." As an example, he offers an analysis of Lewis

¹ Thompson, William H., "An Analysis of Errors in Written Composition by Deaf Children," (Ph. D. dissertation, Ohio State University), American Annals of the Deaf, vol. 81, No. 2 (March 1936), p. 98.

² Fries, Charles Carpenter, "The Structure of English," New York (1952), p. 56.

Carroll's celebrated poem, "The Jabberwocky," which, as all of you know, is grammatically correct as English but wholly nonsensical because of the poet's whimsical use of unfamiliar nouns, verbs, and

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Indeed, it might be a good idea if teachers tried out this poem as a class exercise. It should not only prove an exciting means of stimulating the imagination of students, but it could also serve to test their ability to understand the meaning of words and phrases by studying the context of those sentence members in which they appear. From there, it should prove an additionally interesting exercise to have them rewrite the poem in their own words, substituting known units for those which make no sense. Perhaps the teacher could get some idea of the depth and range of their individual vocabularies as well as of its texture, tone, and color.

I am aware that there may yet exist some element of doubt as to the notion that extensive reading and practice in writing will prove the cure-all or panacea for all the language deficiencies evident in the deaf. Some of you may justifiably wonder how the deaf can possibly read when they do not understand a large percentage of the words encountered in the classics. Others may harbor doubts as to the student's ability to absorb such words and then use them correctly when

writing.

To put things in their proper light, I am not proposing cure-alls any more than I hope to discover the fountain of youth on those days after teaching when I feel bone tired and exhausted. I do manage to feel somewhat refreshed and optimistic the next morning, however, and I have found that cigarettes and coffee proved the best remedy, not tranquilizer pills. What I am getting at here is that we have got to find ways of stimulating students to read and enlarge their stock of words, phrases, and idioms. They should be made to read with a passion as well as with a purpose, just as they take to baseball, dancing, and stamp collecting.

Many teachers are not aware of the fact that words are of less importance than ideas, that a treasury of words is of little value unless the student knows how to use them. If we hope to expand his treasury of word lore, we will first have to expand his treasure house—which is to say the mind and its illimitable capacity for absorbing and storing up ideas. To illustrate the point, I would like to quote from Emily Dickinson's poem on the subject, as she is one poet who always seems to have the knack of putting "proper words in proper places" so as to

convey her ideas imaginatively and expressively:

The brain is wider than the sky
For, put them side by side,
The one the other will contain
With ease—and you, beside.

The brain is deeper than the sea
For, hold them—blue to blue—
The one the other will absorb
As sponges buckets do,

^{*} Ibid., p. 70.

I have found, particularly in the small class averaging 10 students, that poetry is one of the best means of communicating ideas, enlarging a vocabulary, and teaching language. This does not hold true of any poem, of course. The teacher will have to give much time and study to the selection of poems which contain a minimum of hard words, inverted sentences, and elliptical constructions. The ideal poem would be like the one just quoted. It contains words and phrases that are mostly familiar to students; its syntax corresponds with the normal word order of prose; and it is comparatively short; that is, the student always has sight of the whole while analyzing each of its parts. Such a poem can easily be strung out on the blackboard, line by line, and written as prose. This offers good opportunity to review grammatical principles based on complex and actual models of literature. Thus, not only does English learning become a pleasure instead of a bore, but it relates grammar, as it should be related, to actual subject matter

and problems of expression.

So much for the lesson in grammar; let us now turn to the added problems of enlarging the student's vocabulary, teaching subject matter, and developing writing skills. Take this same poem by Emily Dickinson and let students read it as part of their regular class or homework assignment. Ask them to look for the main idea, the tone, mood, or attitude of the poet; then have them list all those words, phrases, and idioms which serve to contribute to the said meaning, tone, mood, or attitude. Do not expect them to learn the meaning of all unknown words and phrases by method of dictionary study and drill. This would only prove confusing and it would detract from the pleasure of reading the poem as poetry. On the contrary, try to get them into the habit of inferring word and phrasal meanings by method of studying the context, or sequence of thought. Then let the results be discussed in class, allowing full opportunity for the free flow of ideas and opinions. It helps stimulate creativity and self-expression, and it offers realistic situations for the teacher to contribute his own ideas, provide word definitions and connotations, and prescribe correct word usage relative to the expression of student ideas and opinions.

This integration of content and expression is a most practical means of getting students to develop the feel of language in action so as to also catch the rhythm and idiom of ordinary speech patterns. Accordingly, they will be that much better prepared for the final and most challenging act of composition or theme writing. The student now has something pertinent to say and he should be able to express ideas and opinions in a language that should prove far more clear, convincing, and attractive than would be the case if such opportunities for discussion and analysis were lacking in class. The simple truth is that we do not only have to teach our students how to write or say a thing, but we must also teach them what to say. One must have something pertinent to say before he can be expected to write

intelligently and persuasively on a given topic.

Perhaps this latter approach might well be the clue to solving the problem of how we can achieve that desired integration of content and expression—or of "body and flavor." If we equate content with subject matter and expression with English learning, it is clear that this job requires the joint cooperation of all teachers in the upper school, not merely the English teacher. Certainly, every teacher of the deaf should help develop such language skills. It represents the wholesome approach to learning. I say "wholesome" because it concerns the whole education of the deaf student and not just a part-it aims to get him to learn and then express the substance or "body" of such learning with emphasis and "flavor," and not merely impart so many facts and ideas about a particular subject of study.

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I think it most significant that an increasing number of employers in the professions and trades are becoming so critical of the performance of their workers relative to on-the-job language skills, or the lack of them. Complaints of "fuzziness in thinking" or "ignorance in following directions" are common, and these would seem to indicate gaps in vocabulary development or inability to grasp word meanings by studying the context of a sentence. Similarly, complaints of "sloppy," "obscure," and "colorless" reports and letter writing might signify weaknesses in grammar and expression. If this is true of the

hearing worker, it is perhaps doubly true of the deaf.

The usual target for such complaints is the English department, of course—and I understand now what Rip Van Winkle meant when he woke up after sleeping 20 years and exclaimed, in the play by Joseph Jefferson: "How soon are we forgot when we are gone." By paraphrasing this so as to say: "How soon do they forget when they have gone," you will understand why it is that people forget the dual responsibility of the English teacher who must teach language and literature. Literature is really a separate subject in itself and its moral, cultural, and philosophical values should be obvious to all. Yet the English teacher is expected to do double duty by teaching language and literature. No wonder he has so little time left to improve the "body and flavor" of student themes and compositions. How can they have any "body and flavor" when there are no rhetorical models to study and imitate, when there is so little time given to the discussion of ideas and the enlargement of vocabulary?

It is nice to know that we have some strong support in this argument, that it comes from such an outside source as Prof. Jacques Barzun, chairman of the History Department in Columbia University, and one of the great teachers of our time. In his inspiring book, "Teacher in America"—a book that I would urge every teacher to read-Barzun devotes a whole chapter to the problem of teaching students to read and write well. He particularly emphasizes the fact

* * * writing cannot be taught exclusively in a course called English composition. Writing can only be taught by the united efforts of the entire teaching staff. This holds good of any school, college, or university. Joint effort is needed, not merely to "enforce the rules"; it is needed to insure accuracy in every subject.

And so we come full circle—and the end of the circle is simply the beginning. Fittingly enough, I have coined both a pun and a metaphor: The end of the circle is simply the beginning. That is, we simply must begin to realize the need of integrating content and expression—or subject matter and English learning—toward the end of turning out well-educated and literate students. I believe that teachers in the lower and middle school have kept this ideal in mind while relating subject matter to English learning. They are favorably situated because they have the same class of students to work with all day. Accordingly, they can deal with wholes.

It is at the upper level of education, therefore, that our sights must be aimed in this direction. Where rotating classes are in vogue, there lies the special danger of losing sight of our objectives. This is even more likely to happen in college, and it illustrates one of the dis-

advantages of specialization.

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If teachers of history, science, and other special studies, assume more of the responsibility of teaching language in addition to subject matter, they will be doing the English teacher and the student a great favor. The English teacher will then be able to devote more time to the rewarding study of literature, thereby relating grammar to rhetoric or to the art of expression, and the student will truly make more headway in learning to put "proper words in proper places" so that they will have "purity, body, and flavor."

MIDDLE SCHOOL LANGUAGE

(Miss Helen Dial, Illinois School, Jacksonville)

First of all, I feel that I must say something to this group about just being a middle-school or intermediate grade teacher of language. Beyond any question, the teaching of language is the most difficult task in a school for the deaf, and perhaps in the whole realm of education. Probably too, the middle-school level presents the most problems of all of the teaching levels. The middle-school setup does not permit the time for the endess repetitions of the primary level. The middle-school children are being thrust into text books with their accompanying new language, and many new language principles must be taught and taught well. Too, these middle-school teachers are the ones who see the children through adolescence with its difficult problems of personality and adjustments. In these years, the boys and girls are becoming aware that their voices are different, so that oral expression, in some cases, becomes a problem. children of the middle school do not have the cuteness and the innate charm of the primary children, nor do they have the achievement and success of the advanced children.

An analogy between the middle-school teacher and the middle class in society could be well drawn. The middle class people in America lack the drama and the sentimental appeal of the lower classes, and they lack the glamour and the spectacular activity of the upper classes, but the great middle class of society is the foundation of America's greatness. And so it is with the middle-school teacher—she is the backbone of the school for the deaf and the education of

deaf children.

As most of you know, Mrs. Tennis, the sectional chairman, in preparing for this program, sent out a questionnaire to various schools, asking what phase of language teaching interested you most. She then compiled your answers and summarized the results. Because this summary showed such a preponderance of interest in the methods

of teaching language, I want first to talk briefly about the different

methods—their strengths and their weaknesses.

Perhaps it would be a very healthful thing for each teacher to put aside all loyalty and allegiance to her favored method, and equally important, to put aside all prejudices against other methods, and take a long, searching objective look at the results of our language teaching from all methods. If we do this honestly, we are forced to acknowledge that we are not producing really satisfactory results with any method.

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Primarily, we must recognize that all of the systems of teaching language to the deaf are artificial methods, which we use as a substi-

tute for hearing.

Teachers, who favor what is called the natural method of teaching language, maintain, and rightly, I believe, that it is the method with the soundest psychological approach. Its basic assumption that "the situation should interpert the language" is good. I think it is, by all odds, the best method for introducing any language principle.

We teachers of the deaf are so eager to have our children natural and normal, and to be progressive ourselves, that we are likely to be prejudiced in favor of the natural method just because of its name. However, we should not be misled by terminology. There is no natural way of teaching language—language is not taught to a hearing child in a school situation. A hearing child learns language automatically, almost incidently, through his hearing, before he ever comes to school. That is, he can put his thoughts into sentences, and he can understand the thoughts of others which are put into sentences.

Teachers who favor other methods of teaching language, such as the Fitzgerald key, the Barry five-slate system, the Wing symbols, and the Croker, Jones, and Pratt books—systems which are based on grammatical construction—feel that deaf children need a more concrete and a more tangible method than the natural method provides. The general criticism of these methods is that although they help produce correct language, it is stilted language and lacking in fluency.

It is true, that no matter which method we use, we have some successes and unfortunately, many failures. I consider myself a rather good language teacher, an opinion which may not be entirely unbiased. I know most of the techniques and devices for teaching language, and I try to use the method and the approach with each individual child which is most effective with him. But I am far from satisfied with the results I achieve. Certainly, the results are not commensurate with the time and the effort expended by both the children and by me.

Granted that we have some children of whom we can say, "He has good language." But remember this, when we make that statement, we are comparing the child with other deaf children—never with his hearing contemporaries—so that we really mean "He has good lan-

guage for a deaf child," and this is not good enough.

I believe that there is something far more basic and fundamental than the mere method of teaching language, which accounts for our poor results. Since any of the language systems presently in use was devised, there has been much investigation on the learning and language of the deaf. Dr. Myklebust has done extensive work in this field. Language which must be learned through visual stimuli rather than through auditory stimuli seems to require more complex mental

processes, and to require a different approach and a different presentation.

The greatest single need in the education of the deaf is for qualified people to work out and perfect a new method of teaching language,

based on scientific data and the results of research.

So far, I am sure that I have sounded as if I consider better language teaching for deaf children impossible of attainment under our present setup. This is not true. I know that there are many areas in which we can improve, and one, which I consider of paramount importance, I want to discuss now. This is our improvement in the teaching of

abstract concepts.

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The basis of all learning and certainly the foundation of all language teaching is the building up of concepts. Russell defines a concept as a generalization about related data, and further states, "The child's concepts reflect his understanding of his world. They assist him to classify his experiences and give meaning to them. The label is practically always a verbal symbol or symobls." In other words, a concept is any word which stands for any one of a group of things. When a child understands that the word "chair" mean an upholstered chair, or a wooden chair, or a comfortable chair, or an uncomfortable chair, or an old chair, or a new chair, or a rocking chair, or a straight chair, he has a concept of the word "chair." This is, of course, a concrete concept, because all of the connotations are of a tangible nature.

All tests and research show, what all teachers of deaf children already know, that in deaf children, language is much less abstract than in hearing children, and that by and large deaf children tend to remain in the concrete or naming stage. Research further shows that while deaf children do fairly well in the use of concrete concepts, they are extremely low in the use of abstract concepts. I do not know of any work on the testing of the deaf child's reading ability from this standpoint, but I am sure that an analysis of reading ability would show that it is the deaf child's lack of understanding of these abstract symbols, which is responsible for his great weakness in reading, because almost all reading is filled with abstract symbols.

Dr. Myklebust, after extensive study of the deaf child's language says, "From the point of view of training, the implication is that the deaf child is in need of more abstract language. Because of the nature of his handicap and perhaps partially as a result of the type of language training he has received, he becomes unduly fixated at the level

of concrete language."

When we consider abstract thinking and abstract understanding, we are inclined to think in terms of what we call abstract nouns, such as pride, freedom, honor, and the like, or of imaginative and fanciful ideas. But abstract thinking is a much more inclusive term and includes all such things as classifications, categorizations, as well as gen-

eralizations, and all reasoning ability depends upon it.

The hearing child first develops concrete concepts and then through mental maturity and teaching attains the abstract, and so must the deaf child. Studies of primitive languages show that at first there was a different name for each tree which grows, but no general word for tree; a different word for cutting trees, grass, meat, etc., but no general word for cutting. Gradually, generalizations built up, and so, we assume, it must in individuals. The concrete concept must

precede the abstract. It is true that under almost any method of language teaching, we do work in classifications of words and phrases. We have our children list words under "Who" and "What" and "When" and "Where," but this is not nearly enough. We should increase this type of work a hundredfold. We should, I believe, from the very beginning, classify almost every word we teach, in order to build up this very important feeling for generalization. For example, as soon as possible, doll, top, ball, gun, jumping rope, etc., should be classified as toys. Later stare, peek, glance, glare, and peep should be placed under their generic heading "Look." Foot, dozen, quart, pound, etc., should be listed as measurements. In short, this type of classification should be used on every possible occasion. Incidentally, this is one of the very best ways to teach new vocabulary.

I do not, of course, mean that these words can be taught as synonyms; rather this is the time to teach the subtle differences of the specific words under the general generic headings. One good way is to begin with the weakest word in a group and build to the strongest, or begin with the strongest and build to the weakest. For example, with the general term "wind," a breeze is a light, fresh wind; a zephyr is a poetic term for a light, delicate wind; a gale is a high wind with force; gust and blast denote sudden winds of short duration. The rest of the terms all imply a rotatory motion of the wind. The mildest of these is whirlwind. A cyclone is a very strong and destructive system of winds about a center of low pressure; in the West Indies these cyclones are called hurricanes; in the Philippines and in the China Sea they are called a typhoon. A tornado is a violent, whirling wind accompanied by a funnel-shaped cloud. A twister is a colloquial term often applied to any of these storms.

This idea of generalization is not merely a matter of vocabulary, but enters into almost every new language principle taught. To illustrate, we teach a child to say, and with understanding, "I like you," "I like ice cream." Then we move on to the use of the infinitive as the object of the verb. We teach him to say, "I like to play," but until he has been taught that to play means to play ball, and to play tag, and to play with dolls, and all of the other things he plays, he does not really understand "I like to play." Or we teach the child to say, "I like to eat." Of course, "to eat" means eating ice cream and candy and hot dogs, but it also means eating spinach and asparagus, which he does not like. It means the acceptance of a majority of things and may mean the rejection of some. "I like to eat," really means, "I like to eat more things than I dislike eating," and this meaning the deaf child

must be taught.

I would like to interject here that all language courses of study were made by mature people, and the language principles presented in what seemed to them to be the logical order. It is my own feeling that part of our language weakness may be due to timing—order which seems logical may not be best. A child who readily learns "I like you," may not be ready for "I like to eat," which presupposes the ability to generalize for understanding.

In composition work we can get a wealth of teaching of abstract concepts. Last year when I was teaching the word "disappointment," I told my class this true story. When I was a little girl, more than anything else in the world I wanted a ring, a ring with a red stone, I

kept asking for one but I never got it. A few weeks before Christmas, my Aunt Grace, who lived in Colorado, wrote my mother and asked her what I would like for Christmas. My mother asked me and I told her that I would like a ring with a red stone. So my mother wrote and told my aunt. A few days before Christmas the package from Aunt Grace came. Inside was a package for my father, a package for my mother, and a very small package for me. I was so excited that I could hardly wait for Christmas morning to come, and the small box was the first package I opened. What do you think was inside—not my beautiful ring with the red stone, but a silver thimble.

Then I had each of the children write a short story about disappointments. We used the predicate adjective "disappointed," and the verb "disappoint" and wrote sentences in connection with each

of the stories.

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Another example of a composition lesson building up abstract concepts is one like this: Tell your class a short story of this type, "Mary had a cute little dog named Spot. One day it was hit by a car, and its leg was broken. Mary felt very sad." Then have your children write short stories about accidents which have happened to their pets. When they finish, help the children to generalize, "People feel sad

when their pets are hurt."

Each word of this type will have to be taught as a separate lesson. We cannot assume that because a child understands and can generalize about the idea of sadness, he can do the same thing with the word "happiness." In even so relatively a simple and concrete a thing as the principal parts of verbs, there is little transfer of knowledge. Because the child learns that it is wrong to say, "I seen," does not mean that he will know it is wrong to say, "I done." In spite of constant self-admonition, "Don't take anything for granted. Don't assume that the deaf child can transfer knowledge," we all do. And you know what your deaf child does. As I once heard a speaker say, "He not only puts the cart before the horse, but he puts it on top of and under the horse." So words like "pride," "loyalty," "truth," "wisdom," "honesty," "worry," "ambition," and the countless others must be taught. This sounds like a stupendous task, and it is. But I believe that composition work of this type can be both interesting and valuable.

Another lesson which my children like and one which builds up reasoning power is one in which I say, "How are a bus and a house alike? How are they different?" and they say, "A house is like a bus, because they both have windows. They are not alike, because a bus can move, and a house can't." "How is an orange like an apple? How are they unalike?" "They are alike because they are both fruit. They are different because we eat the skin of an apple, but we don't eat the skin of an orange."

There are countless ways in which we can build up these abstract concepts in every lesson we teach, and I am sure that we should seize

every opportunity to teach them.

The fact that research shows that the ability of abstract understanding can be built up in deaf children carries an important implication for our teaching. It has been a much-neglected phase of teaching the deaf and one that can be greatly improved with conscious effort. It is a phase of teaching which merits much more stress and attention,

and as I said before, promises improvement not only in written language but also in reading ability.

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LOWER SCHOOL LANGUAGE—DEMONSTRATION

(Mrs. Katherine Miner, Hosford School, Portland, Oreg.)

The children in this demonstration showed the development of speech, oral language, and speechreading through the unit approach. The children had had the experience of going to the zoo. They discussed the experience with the teacher, and speechreading and oral language were involved.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

WORKSHOP I-UPPER SCHOOL LANGUAGE

(Leader: Mrs. Harriet Gough, supervising teacher, Kendall School, Washington,

(Recorder: RETTA T. YOUNGERS, Kansas School, Olathe)

Touched off by Mr. Panara's suggestion that we switch emphasis from grammar to the art of expressive writing, the discussion began with the question of grammar versus rhetoric.

The point was made that it is difficult to teach or correct language without using grammatical terms and a pattern of language principles, presented step by step. The group agreed that language, perhaps more than any other subject, required high motivation on the part of the teacher with the pupils' interest and needs in mind.

In correcting and improving language, criticism should be constructive and encouraging and overcorrecting avoided. The most effective correction is done by the pupils. Personal checklists of common errors were suggested as aids to the pupils in self evaluation of their writing.

The group agreed that in presenting new units of work, new forms of composition, it was necessary for the teacher to take the lead in developing guiding outlines, opening sentences, concluding sentences, and that requirements in performance must vary according to abilities and interests.

Narrative, descriptive, argumentative, and expository types of composition were mentioned.

Reference was made to resource material and techniques of teaching available to teachers. Suggestions for securing topics included the newspapers' current events, other subject areas, poetry, pictures, nonlanguage cartoons, excursions, and field trips.

Teachers found no difficulty in the transfer from key symbols to formal grammar.

The group believed that a zealous, dedicated teacher is the key to successful motivation for good language development.

Someone suggested that we need a corrective key that could be used throughout the country, symbols to point up common errors.

We enjoyed having the deaf teachers with us and felt they made a definite contribution.

WORKSHOP II-UPPER SCHOOL LANGUAGE

(Leader: Maurice Moriabty, principal, Hyde Park Day School, Los Angeles, Calif.)

(Recorder: Osie Brown, teacher, Hyde Park Day School, Los Angeles, Calif.)

I. Question: What are some of the better ways to develop language vocabulary?

The general group reaction seemed to indicate that most word lists have far too little vital interest for the child. However, it was suggested that lists for teacher reference might prevent oversight of certain words. That vocabulary must be meaningful to the child and that it should be a vivid and dramatic tool for the expression of the child's ideas was emphasized.

It was suggested that the systematic presentation of one or two new words written on the blackboard might stimulate interest in vocabu-

lary growth and the use of more effective language.

II. Does reading contribute substantially to the development of

language vocabulary?

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Though careful vocabulary development paves the way to greater reading comprehension, extensive reading can, in turn, broaden and enrich a child's understanding of verbal concepts. Since vocabulary development should be a systematic growth process, carefully selected reading materials would be necessary.

Presentation of new vocabulary in many different and meaningful

situations provides for worthwhile repetition.

Reclassification of learned vocabulary also provides for increasing depth of comprehension, word enrichment and reinforcement.

WORKSHOP III-UPPER SCHOOL LANGUAGE

(Leader: Mrs. Ruth Wiggin, Washington School, Vancouver) (Recorder: Mrs. Mildren Neimi, Washington School, Vancouver)

The following language areas were discussed, and unanimous conclusion was not always reached—

How can self-dependency, interest, and creativity be developed?

1. Reading of classics and poetry.

2. Working knowledge of library, particularly reference use of library.

Dramatization of narrative ideas, poetry, stories.
 Storytelling by students and instructors.

5. Precise outline method to develop inductive and deductive reasoning.

6. In any subject (history, science, etc.) teacher gives pattern sentence to accelerate ability of student in answering questions.

7. Independent reading habits to acquire new ideas and vocabu-

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8. All teachers are language teachers. For example, a science teacher provides easily read, educational, and interesting material to cultivate habit of going to books for learning and pleasure. How can language ability be developed beyond third- and fourth-

grade levels in pupils of normal intelligence?

1. Encourage use of phrases and clauses. Use of Sister Jeanne d'Arc's pattern method helpful for this.

2. Expect full answers.

3. Stimulate students to express themselves in different ways on same idea.

What techniques and methods are effective for developing composition?

1. Cartoons from comic strips depicting sequence of events.

2. Give them something to talk about. Experiences which stimulate the imagination.

3. Arrange topics in order before starting to write.

4. Have students read famous speeches. They contain idiomatic language, tone, purpose, appeal, and a main idea.

How to prevent muddled language.

1. Precise writing of compositions.

2. Direct original language work so they will have to read re-

source material in order to write the composition.

3. Supply ideas for composition.

(a) Brief assignments in reading given for home work.

(b) Next day, 1 hour discussion in class. (c) Third day, write the composition.

How can opaque projector be used in teaching language?

1. Giving directive to pupils.

2. Pictures used for illustrating topic. 3. Magazine articles to be read by class. 4. For correcting errors in composition.

Correcting papers-

1. Have student double space composition, so teacher has room to correct mechanics.

2. Correct mechanics out of class and supply correct form on paper.

3. Correct content and ideas by class discussion.

4. Student then rewrites the paper.

Use opaque projector to correct and discuss paper to save class time.

WORKSHOP IV-MIDDLE SCHOOL LANGUAGE

(Leader: Habold Ratal, principal, Alberta School for the Deaf, Edmonton) (Recorder: Elsie Turechek, California School, Riverside)

This is the report prepared from one of the middle school language workshop sessions. We discussed methods and it would seem to be the consensus of the group that the method used by the teacher would depend upon the needs of the individuals in the class and the philosophy of the school. It was felt that because idioms have a high incidence rate in the English language, that their presentation should begin early in the child's school career. Idiomatic structures would

be presented somewhat later for slow learners.

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Communication is dependent upon the expression of a basic idea. The establishment of the idea may be brought about through various techniques which would include dramatization, cartooning, the use of signs, and the selection of significant words or phrases. Abstraction as an essential part of language development could be initiated through generalization in the early stages.

The general area of time allotment for the various aspects of teaching language was discussed. It was the feeling of the group that the greater proportion of the time be spent upon student expression.

It was agreed that direct and indirect discourse be continued as an essential part of the instructional program. Grammatical terminology should be introduced in the middle school-its function being that of facilitating correction.

Workshop V-Middle School Language

(Leader: Mrs. JOYCE MURPHY, Oklahoma School, Sulphur) (Recorder: Mrs. Gladys Stephens, California School, Riverside)

During the discussion of various language systems it was decided that the natural method is best, but with the use of structured sentences developed by patterns.

There is a trend toward thinking of language synoptically. A previous tendency has been to teach isolated words and phrases. much conditioned response in the primary years contribute to diffi-

culty of flexible response in the middle years.

In a discussion regarding correction of pupils' work, the group was in agreement that the method of correction and the manner and attitude of the teacher are very important. (One opinion was expressed that a teacher should never take a pencil in her hand to correct a The consensus of opinion was that a child should be shown his mistakes and be allowed to correct his own. Too much correction is psychologically unsound. It was suggested that every little mistake should not be corrected, but a mental note made of the mistakes in order to reteach the principles later. The teacher may underline a less desirable word in a sentence and suggest a better one be used to encourage the use of the dictionary and the development of greater understanding and use of synonyms in context.

The use of Crocker, Jones, and Pratt was considered. It was the opinion of the group that there is a need for a revision of these books, however, much of the material is still valuable to the language teacher. Methods and materials used in public schools should be combed

through for ideas that may be applied to teaching of the deaf.

The lack of family communication and cooperation often handicaps the deaf child in his development of language. Closer relationship

between family and school might alleviate this.

The loss of language by the pupils during the summer was discussed. It was suggested that teachers encourage pupils to write letters to teachers and friends. One plan was for the school to give awards to pupils keeping the best diary during the summer and bringing it back to school in the fall. Keeping records of trips or excursions during vacations with the idea of bringing them back to the

classroom was another idea offered.

The use of pictures as a means of developing language was discussed. One way to utilize action pictures is to have the pupils pick out the things he has done and discuss them in written language. Other groups of pictures are used to teach is and are, have and has, and the present progressive tenses. It was decided that stories should be developed from pictures by using the past tense. Also, use of (Kodak) pictures taken during the summer by pupils or teacher may be used for language development. Colored slides have been projected in the classroom for language lessons.

It was conceded that a certain amount of drill on language principles is necessary but must not be overdone. Teach and encourage pupils to

think for themselves.

Teachers must be cognizant of the different levels of abstractions. The higher the abstraction, the less agreement there is as to the meaning of a given word (loyalty, democracy). Abstractions really begin in the primary grades. Symbols used to represent things, that is, words are low-level abstractions.

Practice in recall should begin on the primary level to facilitate abstract thinking in the middle grades and to eliminate the rote response. Techniques for this should be worked out by the teachers.

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A quote was given from George Miller's "Language and Communication," "any language is composed of its vocabulary and its grammar." Therefore, we cannot teach language without teaching grammar. "We learn rules for forming sentences (not verbalized rules or formulas). Logical words are the little words that * * * state the relations among other words." 1

Formal versus incidental teaching of direct and indirect discourse—

1. Teacher must set the stage for formal.

2. Use incidental when the opportunity presents itself. How to get away from "deafisms"—

1. Don't use them yourself.

2. Don't accept them from the children. Listen to the speech of people not associated with teaching the deaf.

3. By extensive reading the pupil can establish patterns of lan-

guage and thus eliminate them.

There was a feeling among the group that research in the field of teaching language to the deaf has been neglected as compared to the fields of speech and auditory training. Classroom teachers might do much to aid in this research by sending problems which present themselves in the classroom to research centers.

WORKSHOP VI-MIDDLE SCHOOL LANGUAGE

(Leader: Alyce Thomas, supervising teacher, California School, Riverside)
(Recorder: B. Griffing, California School, Riverside)

1. Introduction of membership in the discussion group indicated good geographical representation.

2. Would everyday written work with a minimum of correction and with positive encouragement yield greater language development?

¹ George A. Miller, "Language and Communication." New York; McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951, p. 170.

The group felt correction was necessary to some extent. The group felt that self-correction was an important learning technique. It was suggested that some kind of marks could be used to facilitate self-correction. (Marks such as a proofreader's marks.)

It was believed that too much uncorrected language would re-

inforce "baby" errors in language.

Research in language development has indicated a basic weakness in abstract symbols. Instruction and correction are essential in the development of abstract concepts.

3. How much time should be allotted for individual work in com-

position: for mechanics, correction, and instruction?

Language should be taught all day in every class. Most teachers in the discussion group did not teach rotating classes. It was felt that the nonrotating class allowed the teacher to correlate language instruction and correction in all subjects throughout the day. Language should be the base in all subject areas. It is undesirable to allot time to each specific area. If this were done, there could be a tendency to give uniform emphasis to all language principles.

4. The chairman introduced sequence picture lessons published by St. Joseph's Institute. "English the Easy Way" by Schachter was suggested as a reference book. "Teaching Language to the Deaf" by Agnes Lack is another excellent reference book. "Trips and Treats" by Mary Numbers was suggested as an excellent book for developing

functional vocabulary.

5. Children have difficulty with verb forms such as has, is, does, goes, walks, etc. How can they learn proper usage?

The group was shown a "crutch" technique by Miss Helen Dial which has been successful with some classes.

6. Do Wing symbols help deaf children?

The Wing symbols as a method of teaching language was discussed. It was compared to the Fitzgerald key and to the Natural method. It was the opinion of some that the symbols are confusing. Some felt the symbols could be used as a method of teaching grammar.

7. Do you feel it is possible to make language too stilted by using

one method exclusively?

It was the feeling of this group that the goal, straight language, was more important than the means. Method should depend upon a structure although it should be a flexible one. There should be a language course of study.

8. Is there communication between teachers regarding progress of

an individual child or class?

Many indicated that progress reports were written at the end of each school year. Reports are usually given to the new teacher at the beginning of the new school year. One member reported that conferences were held between the current teacher and the new teacher to effect a continuing program of instruction. Some schools are using an accumulative record which is a part of the school record for each child. In one school detailed reports are written including strengths, weaknesses, attitude, and behavior in the language class.

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9. What about situational dramatizations as a means of illustrating correct and effective language terminology?

It was reported that dramatization as a means of illustrating had been a valuable tool in teaching language, especially with slower classes.

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10. What about the effectiveness of drill in presenting language concepts and correct forms?

Drill is very useful and necessary. However, it must be purposeful drill. Drill must never become merely writing practice.

11. Should news be written in the key?

The general feeling of those using the key was that the key should be used only for introducing a new principle and for correction.

WORKSHOP VII-LOWER SCHOOL LANGUAGE

(Leader; Eloise Kennedy, New Mexico School, Santa Fe) (Recorder; Lucy Betchelder, Nebraska School, Omaha)

Methods discussed

1. "The Natural Method;" Groht, Mildred A., Natural "Language for Deaf Children," Volta Bureau 1958.

2. "The Fitzgerald Key;" Fitzgerald, Edith; "Straight Language for the Deaf," McClure, 1929.

3. A combination of the two.

4. Mrs. Ina Smith of the Oregon School explained the use of the Wing symbols.

Certain questions and areas discussed

Should oral work always precede written work? It was agreed that much depends on the age and oral ability of the child and that the child who experiences great difficulty should be allowed to see the written form of commonly used expressions.

"News"-how often? Value of "News" work

Items should be newsworthy. Children should not be encouraged in offering stale items simply because the child is sure of the language of the item. Too many items become tiresome. Some teachers allow each child to be responsible for news once a week. Residential school children have difficulty in finding interesting things to report, so the teacher must bring in news. Day school children depend on their parents for items. Children should be encouraged in newspaper reading. Cartoons are helpful in the news period.

Language games and atcivities for preschool deaf children

The importance of story development through the use of dramatization, the flannel board, the use of sequence pictures, was discussed. As the children become older captions may be written for the pictures. The Judy Co. offers commercially made materials known as See-Quees.

Suggestions were asked for teaching the use of the article a to prevent later mistakes. There was no general agreement as to introducing new nouns with or without the article.

Techniques for teaching the proper order of adjectives

Constant repetition using the correct order seemed most satisfactory. Reserving a section of the blackboard for modifiers to be placed in columns following the correct order was mentioned.

Should the Croker, Jones, and Pratt language drill stories be used?

It was agreed that the language is sometimes stilted and the vocabulary out of date, but that the language principles offer a guide for order of introduction. The stories seem to appeal to deaf children and should be revised to meet the present need. The teacher should use the books, but should not give them to the children.

The following suggestions for developing natural, functional

language were discussed:

to be

Ask questions: Are you a boy? Are you a girl? Are you a baby? Child should reply: No, I am a girl. Yes, I am a girl. No, I am a big boy.

Refer to other children so that the reply requires "is," "are."

to have

I have brown eyes. You have blue eyes. Tom has black hair. We have blue shirts. Bill and Bob have no pencils.

to see

Make a game of having the child look at something the others cannot see, and reporting, I saw a blue car.

to give

Action work: Give Mary a yellow ball. What did you do?

to like

I like ice cream I do not like ——. Discuss menu. I liked everything. I like everything but ——.

to go

Anticipate trips. Use "We will go" and "We are going." After the trip is completed, call attention to the change of verb to went. Draw a line through the future tense and write the past above it.

Game for questions

Teacher chooses a colored crayola or marble without letting the children see. What color do I have? Do you have ———? Yes, I do. No, I don't. The one who guesses correctly is then it. Write the question and answer forms where the children can see them until they can ask them from memory.

Teacher tells children she will choose some number of small objects. How many do I have? Do you have ———? Yes, I do. No, I

don't.

Teacher chooses one of the toys or objects which the children know in speech and speechreading. What do I have? Do you have ———? Yes, I do. No, I don't.

Teacher tells children she will do something. (Selected from the action work with which the children are familiar.) What did I do?

Did you —— ? Yes, I did. No, I didn't.

I am going somewhere. Where am I going? Are you going to _____? Yes, I am. No, I am not.

I saw something. What did I see? Did you see——?
I wrote something. What did I write? Did you write——?
I bought something. What did I buy? Did you buy ———?
I found something. What did I find? Did you find ———?

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The teacher should introduce the game and then let the children take over.

Dramatization of incidents requiring.—Thank you. You are welcome. Pardon me. May I see? I am sorry. May I have some ———? Please pass the ————.

Picture description.—What did the boy say? What does a cow say?

Playing store.—Use real money. I want some ———. How much

The deaf child will not develop good use of language by learning about language. He must learn the correct forms in a meaningful situation. The teacher will take advantage of useful situations as they arise and will also structure situations in which the child can be required to use words and expressions that he will need out of the classroom. After the child has mastered the various expressions and question forms insist that he use them at appropriate times.

Teach some common signs:

Entrance Out of Order
Exit Keep Off the Grass
Ladies No Admittance
Gentlemen Admission, 50 cents
Danger Adults Only
Keep Out No Minors Allowed

Workshop VIII-LOWER SCHOOL LANGUAGE

(Leader: Mrs. Gladys Waldorf, Tucker-Maxon Oral School, Portland, Oreg.)
(Recorder: Mrs. Margaret Thorenson, Washington School, Vancouver)

The group discussed Sister Jeanne d'Arc's thought provoking paper, and the members of the several residential and day schools represented discussed their methods in relation to the carefully planned structured language pattern which she presented.

We used Mrs. Donaldina Tennis' compilation of questions as a basis for our discussion. Due to time limitation only the following points were discussed and agreed upon—

1. The group represented was of the opinion that oral work should precede written work, allowing for individual differences, and that oral work is preferred in the lower school.

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2. That the Natural language method is the preferred method of teaching language, implemented with some form of structured language as prescribed by the course of study of each school.

3. That individual differences of the child influence the amount of "pressure" to be used.

4. That both colloquial and idiomatic language be used as early as feasible to promote natural language.

5. That meaningful news as part of a daily schedule is important but not a specific requirement.

6. That the children should be in an atmosphere saturated with natural language.

MONDAY, JUNE 26, 1961

AUDITORY TRAINING

Main building chapel—Section leader: Dr. Frank X. Frueh, head, audiology department, Indiana School. $9-9:45\ a.m.$

"Auditory Training—Clarification of Concepts."

Keynote speaker: Miss Jacqueline Keaster, chief audiologist, Hearing and Speech Clinic, Children's Hospital Society, Los Angeles, Calif.

10-11:30 a.m.

Main building—morning sessions of workshops.
1. "Learning Experiences and Auditory Training.
 Miss Bessie Pugh, Institute of Logopedics, Wichita, Kans.
 Recorder: Mr. Norman Anderson, Tucker-Maxon School.
2. "Principles and Development of Auditory Training Programs."

"Principles and Development of Auditory Training Programs."
Mr. Paul Bird, Florida School for the Deaf and Blind, St. Augustine, Fla.
Recorder: Mr. Merle Goldman, Indiana School.

3. "Research in Auditory Testing."

Dr. Fred Berg, Oregon School for the Deaf, Salem.

Recorder Mr. Warren Johnson, Portland Center for Hearing and Speech.

Main Building Chapel—4. "Audiometric Testing; Demonstration and Particles".

Dr. Geary McCandless, New Mexico School for the Deaf. (This workship is open to all attending the covention.)

1:15-2:15 p.m.

Afternoon sessions of workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Main Building Chapel-Section meeting to summarize workshops.

AUDITORY TRAINING—CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

(JACQUELINE KEASTER, director, Hearing and Speech Clinic, Childrens Clinic, Childrens Hospital Society, Los Angeles, Calif.)

A few months ago, a 10-year-old girl was referred to the hearing center at Childrens Hospital, Los Angeles for oto-audiologic evaluation. She was found to have a serious high frequency hearing loss with a consequent problem in communication. The ear, nose, and throat examination was normal. The diagnosis was: A sensori-neural hearing loss; bilateral; severe. This child was one of seven children in a family where support, financial or otherwise, was limited. She was in a fourth grade classroom with normally hearing children. She received occasional help from an itinerant speech therapist. The question was whether we at Childrens could recommend that the county crippled children service buy her a hearing aid. There were several contraindications. In the first place, she got little support or understanding at home; she was in a schoolroom where the teacher could be expected to have no knowledge or experience with hearing aids; and most of all, hers was a hearing loss that, without auditory training,

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a hearing aid would be of questionable usefulness. She would literally need to learn to hear and understand speech over again because never before had she heard any of the high frequency consonants. After much discussion, we finally said that a hearing aid of "xyz" make, model Q.T. was recommended on condition that the school system in which she was a pupil was able and willing to provide auditory training. Several weeks later, the school system's director of special education called us to report that they had arranged with one of their nurses to provide auditory training for the child in question if by that we meant that the nurse would be willing to "show her how to wear the aid and to help her with batteries, cords, etc. They, too, realized that the parents were limited." I had to tell him as gently and kindly as I knew how that that wasn't what we meant by auditory training. What we did mean was systematically teaching her to listen to and to learn to interpret a new set of speech patterns different from those she had learned to respond to with a defective hearing mechanism without a hearing aid. A hearing aid in and of itself was not a teacher but an aid to teaching. This child had intelligible speech and normal language. Prognosis in response to proper training could be expected to be excellent.

This incident, I cite, in order to point up what is, to me, one of the most serious problems facing us today in our consideration of auditory training. Great numbers of people responsible for the education of deaf and hard-of-hearing children don't know what it is. The confusion, I believe, is occasioned by the fact that before World War II and the advent of the vacuum tube, and later the transistor, hearing aids were big, miserable things with huge batteries and comparatively poor output and frequency response. Very few children were equipped with them. Any amplification available to them was found in residence or large city day schools and that wasn't very adequate. Few children known to have hearing losses were found in regular classrooms. People outside of schools for the deaf rarely pretended to know anything about methods of teaching them. Auditory training, as we knew it then, was hard work, day after day, on the part of both teachers and pupils. It was a painstaking effort to systematically teach a child to use every bit of residual hearing that he had. Some of the results were often spectacular.

Since the war, there has been a tremendous growth of interest on the part of educators and health and welfare agencies in the rehabilitation of deaf and hard-of-hearing children. Hearing aids of the wearable variety have become small, compact, powerful, and efficient. Children with degrees of hearing loss once thought to be severe are now in regular classrooms wearing hearing aids. Too few of them have the advantage of systematic auditory training. Group amplifiers on the market today have wonderful possibilities compared to those of 20 years ago. Auditory training is easier than it once was with the help of modernday amplification. Children once thought to be totally deaf can now be reached, but the resultant residual hearing still must be trained to be of any use to the deaf child. A hearing aid in any form is not a teacher but an aid to teaching.

Auditory training, at least in some form, has been known as part of the education of the deaf since ancient times. Mention is made of stimulating the auditory mechanism by means of acoustic exercises as early as the first century in Greece. One concept of auditory training, as we know it in this country, had its beginning in Vienna, where Victor Urbantisch, an eminent otologist of the late 19th century, demonstrated a method of acoustic exercises at the Döbling Institute for the Deaf. Max Goldstein, then a medical student in Vienna, observed the work that the Viennese physician was doing. He became interested in its possibilities and brought the method to this country. In 1914, Dr. Goldstein founded Central Institute, where the basic approach to teaching was what he called the acoustic method. He started out by teaching children in the school with residual hearing to distinguish the difference between noisemakers such as bells and whistles, of which he had an infinite variety. The children learned differences between the sounds of musical instruments, some especially devised for the purpose; later on, they learned to distinguish between vowel sounds spoken into a simplex tube patterned after a stethescope with an aluminum funnel at the end. Finally, the children tried to distinguish differences between words, short phrases, and sentences. This, plus a dogged determination that every child use his hearing to the utmost of his ability, was the acoustic method.

Needless to say, more exciting things can be done now more easily with more children than could be done 20 years ago. But, there are still limitations within which we must work. Frequently, those limitations are apart from the severity of the hearing loss if one judges results in terms of individual children. Wedenberg, in a study of a group of 36 severely hard-of-hearing preschool children published in Sweden in 1955, concluded that "the effect of the intensity of the training, the child's intelligence, and the age at which training is first initiated upon the results is clearly apparent from a comparison of the following two cases in which the threshold curves are practically the

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Pupil I: Superior ability on performance and verbal tests;

training started at 21/2 years with great intensity.

Pupil II: Average ability on performance tests. Verbal tests could not be administered in the usual way. Training started at 7½ years without great intensity.

Pupil I has high speech intelligibility and attends high school as a regular pupil. His Swedish vocabulary corresponds to the

requirements for adults of above-normal intelligence.

Pupil II has intelligible speech. He attends a school for the deaf. His vocabulary corresponds to the minimum requirements

for the 8-year level.

In the hearing clinic at Childrens, we have observed the progress of two children who illustrate another limiting factor in a somewhat comparable set of conditions. Each child is still under 5; both have been in preschool programs. Each has hearing in the low frequencies through a thousand cycles. Each wears the same make and model hearing aid. One child is the son of well-educated intelligent parents both in a profession. The other child is the son of very young parents, struggling to get ahead. The first child is curious, outgoing, and very talkative. His mother says he is just naturally very verbal. His vocabulary is not far short of that of a normally hearing child about a year his junior. The second child is a fearful, immature little boy with no speech. The parents report "greater environmental awareness," since he has been wearing the hearing aid. The first mother talks with her child a great deal.

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a hearing aid would be of questionable usefulness. She would literally need to learn to hear and understand speech over again because never before had she heard any of the high frequency consonants. After much discussion, we finally said that a hearing aid of "xyz" make, model Q.T. was recommended on condition that the school system in which she was a pupil was able and willing to provide auditory training. Several weeks later, the school system's director of special education called us to report that they had arranged with one of their nurses to provide auditory training for the child in question if by that we meant that the nurse would be willing to "show her how to wear the aid and to help her with batteries, cords, etc. They, too, realized that the parents were limited." I had to tell him as gently and kindly as I knew how that that wasn't what we meant by auditory training. What we did mean was systematically teaching her to listen to and to learn to interpret a new set of speech patterns different from those she had learned to respond to with a defective hearing mechanism without a hearing aid. A hearing aid in and of itself was not a teacher but an aid to teaching. This child had intelligible speech and normal language. Prognosis in response to proper training could be expected to be excellent.

This incident, I cite, in order to point up what is, to me, one of the most serious problems facing us today in our consideration of auditory training. Great numbers of people responsible for the education of deaf and hard-of-hearing children don't know what it is. The confusion, I believe, is occasioned by the fact that before World War II and the advent of the vacuum tube, and later the transistor, hearing aids were big, miserable things with huge batteries and comparatively poor output and frequency response. Very few children were equipped with them. Any amplification available to them was found in residence or large city day schools and that wasn't very adequate. Few children known to have hearing losses were found in regular classrooms. People outside of schools for the deaf rarely pretended to know anything about methods of teaching them. Auditory training, as we knew it then, was hard work, day after day, on the part of both teachers and pupils. It was a painstaking effort to systematically teach a child to use every bit of residual hearing that he had. Some of

the results were often spectacular.

Since the war, there has been a tremendous growth of interest on the part of educators and health and welfare agencies in the rehabilitation of deaf and hard-of-hearing children. Hearing aids of the wearable variety have become small, compact, powerful, and efficient. Children with degrees of hearing loss once thought to be severe are now in regular classrooms wearing hearing aids. Too few of them have the advantage of systematic auditory training. Group amplifiers on the market today have wonderful possibilities compared to those of 20 years ago. Auditory training is easier than it once was with the help of modernday amplification. Children once thought to be totally deaf can now be reached, but the resultant residual hearing still must be trained to be of any use to the deaf child. A hearing aid in any form is not a teacher but an aid to teaching.

Auditory training, at least in some form, has been known as part of the education of the deaf since ancient times. Mention is made of stimulating the auditory mechanism by means of acoustic exercises as early as the first century in Greece. One concept of auditory training, as we know it in this country, had its beginning in Vienna, where Victor Urbantisch, an eminent otologist of the late 19th century, demonstrated a method of acoustic exercises at the Döbling Institute for the Deaf. Max Goldstein, then a medical student in Vienna, observed the work that the Viennese physician was doing. He became interested in its possibilities and brought the method to this country. In 1914, Dr. Goldstein founded Central Institute, where the basic approach to teaching was what he called the acoustic method. He started out by teaching children in the school with residual hearing to distinguish the difference between noisemakers such as bells and whistles, of which he had an infinite variety. The children learned differences between the sounds of musical instruments, some especially devised for the purpose; later on, they learned to distinguish between vowel sounds spoken into a simplex tube patterned after a stethescope with an aluminum funnel at the end. Finally, the children tried to distinguish differences between words, short phrases, and sentences. This, plus a dogged determination that every child use his hearing to the utmost of his ability, was the acoustic method.

Needless to say, more exciting things can be done now more easily with more children than could be done 20 years ago. But, there are still limitations within which we must work. Frequently, those limitations are apart from the severity of the hearing loss if one judges results in terms of individual children. Wedenberg, in a study of a group of 36 severely hard-of-hearing preschool children published in Sweden in 1955, concluded that "the effect of the intensity of the training, the child's intelligence, and the age at which training is first initiated upon the results is clearly apparent from a comparison of the following two cases in which the threshold curves are practically the

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Pupil I: Superior ability on performance and verbal tests;

training started at 21/2 years with great intensity.

Pupil II: Average ability on performance tests. Verbal tests could not be administered in the usual way. Training started

at 71/2 years without great intensity.

Pupil I has high speech intelligibility and attends high school as a regular pupil. His Swedish vocabulary corresponds to the requirements for adults of above-normal intelligence.

Pupil II has intelligible speech. He attends a school for the deaf. His vocabulary corresponds to the minimum requirements

for the 8-year level.

In the hearing clinic at Childrens, we have observed the progress of two children who illustrate another limiting factor in a somewhat comparable set of conditions. Each child is still under 5; both have been in preschool programs. Each has hearing in the low frequencies through a thousand cycles. Each wears the same make and model hearing aid. One child is the son of well-educated intelligent parents both in a profession. The other child is the son of very young parents, struggling to get ahead. The first child is curious, outgoing, and very talkative. His mother says he is just naturally very verbal. His vocabulary is not far short of that of a normally hearing child about a year his junior. The second child is a fearful, immature little boy with no speech. The parents report "greater environmental awareness," since he has been wearing the hearing aid. The first mother talks with her child a great deal.

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She has benefited greatly from professional guidance through a parent group at the preschool that the child attends. The second child goes to school each morning, but the parents are able to offer no real help beyond the classroom. When the father was asked the other day if he thought that he and his wife gained in their understanding of their child's problem by attending the parents' group at the child's school he said that he guessed so, but they didn't really have any problems with their child. "He is a good kid—he'll get along all right." One was reminded of a statement made by Wedenberg concerning some parents of children in his group. "* * * If a little child who has not yet learned to talk was provided with a hearing aid, the parents' interest in the child's auditory education slackened. They rested easy imagining their child was well provided for. After all, he had a hearing aid and would gradually learn to talk. But, nothing could be a greater fallacy. A profoundly hard-of-hearing child never learns to speak spontaneously without daily methodic training."

Audiologists and otologists, while in the business of measuring hearing, sometimes make some rather glib remarks concerning the prognosis for a child's eventual speech and language development based entirely upon the amount of residual hearing a child possesses, tending to put great emphasis upon whether a child has measurable hearing through the speech range. Hopkins and Hudgins reported a study in 1953 done with 79 children at the Clarke School for the Deaf in which they attempted to study the problem of the relationship between degree of deafness and response to acoustic training. All the children were tested with the pure tone audiometer and were then given speech perception tests to measure lipreading ability and to measure lipreading and hearing ability combined. All of the children had had at least 3 years of acoustic training. In order to determine whether or not the extent of the frequency range of the ears affected achievement in acoustic training in the profoundly deaf group, Hopkins and Hudgins divided the children into three groups.

(a) Ten pupils whose audiograms extend through 8,000 cycles per second;

(b) Twenty-five pupils whose audiograms extend through 4,000 cycles per second; and

(c) Twenty-five pupils whose audiograms extend through 2,000 cycles per second or less.

There were slight differences in the range of scores for the three groups but not nearly as much as might be expected. It is clear to these researchers as a result of their study that profoundly deaf children who cannot hear tones beyond 2,000 cycles per second, and some whose audiograms cut off at 1,000 cycles per second, profit from acoustic training. Many of them may never be able to understand speech by ear alone. But with proper training, they will be able to employ the ear as an aid to speech perception.

The most obvious handicap resulting from deafness is, of course, in the area of speech and language, but one needn't work long as a teacher of the deaf or as an audiologist before one becomes aware of that almost birdlike alertness characteristic of the very deaf child. It is an attempt on the part of the child to keep abreast of what is going on without the benefit of a normal alerting mechanism. Some

years ago, we had a young woman working with us, who had lost her hearing when a senior in high school. Marian had normal speech and language. She said that her greatest problem, as a result of her deafness, was in keeping herself a part of the group around her. If she didn't take care, she tended to drift off into her own private world. She was by nature an outgoing, intelligent, young woman. I have a notion that if some of our deaf children were able to tell us about it, they might describe the same sort of problem as a result of sensory deprivation. Many deaf children haven't sufficient hearing to learn to understand speech by ear alone, but they do have enough hearing augmented by a hearing aid to learn to hear the differences between noises, dangerous, and otherwise, in the environment. Many times, we see parents of a deaf child who are themselves deaf. asked if they wear a hearing aid, the answer is frequently, "No, it is too noisy." When queried further, one usually finds that they did not have the benefit of amplification as children and have never had any kind of auditory training.

Bowlby in 1951 did some animal experiments which tend to confirm the theory that deprivation of stimulation if continued long enough results in loss of function. Those experiments were in the area of visual deprivation and resulted in blindness. But theoretically, at least, it would seem to follow that if small amounts of hearing are to be used, work should be started as early in a child's life as possible. It has been our observation over a period of many years that the results of this sort of auditory training are well worth the effort expended.

Carefully controlled studies, such as Wedenberg's and another reported by Naunton in 1957, have shown that any seeming improvement in hearing as a result of auditory training is either an artifact of testing or not of an amount great enough to be considered of clinical

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Many articles have appeared in the last half dozen years in the audiologic literature concerning the use of binaural amplification. The hearing aid wearers under discussion have been in most cases adults with normal speech and language. Many of these articles have described the subjective responses of patients using two hearing aids as opposed to one. Most such articles report substantially better listening with two aids. But, laboratory experiments up to now (the latest report appeared in the June 1961 Journal of Speech and Hearing Research) have failed to demonstrate the gains objectively. Little or no work has been reported comparing monaural and binaural amplification with deaf and/or hard of hearing children. The variables being what they are such a study would probably be of questionable value if it were reported. But, from the work with adult hearing aid users, some points have been brought out which are perhaps of value in working with children. Hirsh reported in 1950 that there was some evidence that the ear was about 3 db. more sensitive at threshold with two aids than with one. Psychologically, it may seem as though one ought to hear twice as well with two as with one but that isn't quite the way it works. There is some evidence to the effect that adult listeners are able to localize sound better with two aids than with one and that as a result they are better able to separate speech from background noise. Using the kind of test regimen that one must use with small children who have no speech and language, it is almost impossible to demonstrate any real differences in listening with two hearing aids rather

than with one. If we at Childrens are working with a child whose hearing curves are bilaterally fairly symmetrical, who is psychologically fairly mature and whose parents are accepting of amplification, we sometimes recommend a binaural fitting. But to us, the social and psychological factors are the controlling ones. Actually, I have not seen any children who have objected to the weight or inconvenience of the two instruments. Many children seem to prefer two even though they can't tell you why.

Not long ago, we had a call from a social agency concerning a 12year-old boy, a known patient of ours, who lost his hearing with meningitis when he was 5. He has worn a hearing aid since that Recently, Crippled Children Service provided a new one. The boy, the social worker reported, was having difficulty in school. His teacher had decided that what he needed was a second hearing aid. That, she thought, would solve all of his problems. Would we recommend that the second aid be purchased for him? This, I was reluctant to do because of my knowledge of this boy's background and the fear that he had been oversold on the merits of binaural amplification. In the last analyses, it's not the hearing aid, whether it be one or two, but the teaching that goes with it that solves the problems.

In summary, then, what we have been trying to say is this: Auditory training is still important for our deaf children just as it was in Dr. Goldstein's day. Much can be gained from present day wearable hearing aids and from high quality group amplifiers. But, a hearing aid in and of itself is not a teacher but an aid to teaching.

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WORKSHOPS

Workshop I—Learning Experiences and Auditory Training

(Leader: Miss Bessie Pugh, Institute of Logopedics, Wichita, Kans.) (Recorder: NORMAN ANDERSON, Tucker-Maxon School, Portland, Oreg.)

For those who hear normally to appreciate fully the vast amount of knowledge one acquires about his environment through his sense of hearing is probably impossible. We are so immersed in a sea of sound that we take it for granted without stopping to analyze the role it plays in our daily learning experiences.

If one made a list of every type of sound he heard during one single day, it would definitely increase his awareness of what an acoustically handicapped child is missing. Therefore, the first step in setting up an auditory training program for deaf children is to become acutely aware of all the sounds in our environment that escape the deaf child.

We usually begin an auditory training program by teaching children to discriminate between gross sounds and to identify noisemakers with their sounds. This should always be done in an interesting and stimulating manner and the concept of what the instructor wants

should be made very clear from the beginning.

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ds 4. Next we proceed to sounds the animals make and associate these with the animals which make them. Firsthand experiences with the animals are desirable whenever possible. Feeling a cat purr or touching the body of a barking dog provides an important supplement to auditory training based on animal sounds. Not only should recordings of animal sounds be used but the teacher should imitate the various animals and encourage the children to do so as part of the auditory training program.

The differences between warning sounds of animals (such as the growling of a dog) and pleasant sounds of animals (such as the

singing of a bird) should be stressed.

Parents should be told what is being done in the auditory training program at school so they can supplement it with home experiences. Sounds made by different machines should be utilized whenever possible. Children should be helped to recognize the various traffic sounds—horns, sirens, whistles, etc., and should be taught to listen

When construction work is being done in the neighborhood, the children can be taken to listen for various sounds such as a jack-

hammer, sawing, or hammering.

for them to insure their safety.

Teaching children to recognize the sounds of various types of household equipment can be done by cooperative parents. Learning to identify the doorbell, the telephone ring, or the sound of the vacuum cleaner is making functional use of hearing. The Bell Telephone Teletrainer can be used to teach a child to distinguish between the ring, the dial tone, and the busy signal. Teaching the child concepts about how far sounds can be transmitted by phone or satellites usually increases their interest in sound per se. Children can also be taught to give messages over the phone even when they cannot receive messages in this way. Knowing how to call the police or get help in an emergency is a safety measure which children welcome. Deaf children can also be taught how to phrase questions over the phone in order to get a yes or no answer which they can recognize even when they are unable to understand a sentence.

There are certain gross sounds in our physical environment that children should be helped to recognize, such as thunder, hail on the roof, breaking of branches, running water, etc. Many of these are

warning sounds and may play a vital role in safety.

Music sounds of all kinds are stressed in auditory training programs because they can be used to improve the rhythm, accent, pitch, and phrasing in speech work as well as providing esthetic appreciation.

Many gross sounds are made by handling, operating, or moving objects. These include such noises as the screeching of a long piece

of chalk, the grinding of a pencil sharpener, the crumpling of paper, or rolling a pencil on a desk. Every type of sound that comes within a child's experience should be made as meaningful as possible to him.

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In addition to the gross sounds, deaf children need an infinite amount of training in the recognition of the speech sounds—vowels, consonants, words, and sentences. As children develop an understanding of language, it is usually easier for them to recognize known words in sentences than individual elements because they provide more identifying clues. A child who cannot tell the difference between the sentences "A cow says, 'Moo! Moo!" and "A dog says, 'Bow-wow'" because they have the same number of syllables may be able to differentiate between these two sentences and "A turkey says, 'Gobble, Gobble'" because of the added syllables and change of rhythm.

Other human sounds children should be taught to identify are the reflect sounds—laughing, crying, sneezing, coughing, and hiccuping. Sounds made by certain bodily movements, such as snapping the fingers, clapping the hands, gritting the teeth, crunching toast, or our footsteps should be used in an auditory training program that utilizes every possible learning experience.

Instead of forcing children to use hearing aids, an auditory training program should be made so interesting and stimulating that the children desire to hear. Little is learned without the willing participation of the learner. The following are some suggestions which may be used by the classroom teacher as a means of motivating the child to better appreciate sound as an educational and psychological sensory pathway to a more meaningful enjoyment of the world about them.

1. Use a 50-word monosyllable list, both with and without the aids, to prove to the child that he can get more information by using his residual hearing than he can by lipreading alone. Allow the child to see his scores by both methods.

2. Play games with the small child that necessitate his using his hearing without his realizing that this is the point of the game.

3. Let the child that refuses to use amplification be the teacher as a means of stimulating interest.

4. Put yourself in the child's place and try to understand his refusal to wear the hearing aid.

5. Make use daily of every opportunity for creating an interest

We must teach the children to avoid sounds that are not socially acceptable, such as the shuffling of feet, talking loudly, or all children talking at one time. We should correct these by a positive method such as making a list of polite things to do. Example:

1. Let one child speak at a time.

2. Speak softly.

3. Pick up your feet when you walk.

Make use of onomatopoetic words such as "splash," "bang," "slap," or "tinkle." Create interest in a sound per se and this will carry over into other areas of auditory perception. Some children can be taught to understand rhyming words intellectually even though they cannot distinguish them auditorially.

The Wiedenberg theory in auditory training of severe hard-of-hearing preschool children was that of trying to get preschool children

to use their hearing as their primary means of getting information rather than their visual ability, was discussed. Some of the children develop a negative attitude against the people who are using this method on them. Therefore, this must be used with care.

When auditory training is used as an integral part of every experience of the day it is far more effective than when treated as a sepa-

rate subject in the curriculum.

Workshop II—Principles and Development of Auditory Training Programs

(Leader: Paul D. Bird, Florida School, St. Augustine) (Recorder: Merle Goldman, Indiana School, Indianapolis)

As a basis for investigation it was thought best to define our terms and outline the problems we hoped to discuss. The following definitions were decided upon.

AUDITORY TRAINING

The aim of auditory training is to put to use the full ability of the subject to benefit from his residual hearing.

PURPOSE OF AUDITORY TRAINING

1. To enable the child to establish a more complete contact with his environment.

To assist in the production of speech and to aid in speech reading.
 In many cases it is felt that a psychological benefit is derived.

4. Expected benefits depend not so much on hearing acuity as upon the desire, training, age of onset, and other factors not apparent from

a pure tone audiogram.

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Since auditory training is entirely dependent upon the equipment used, much time was devoted to a discussion of various factors involved, and it was concluded that much more time ought to be devoted to this subject at future meetings. Schools for the deaf being the prime users of auditory equipment, they should promote more research in this field. One of the needs at this time appears to be the development of a completely cordless type of group hearing aid.

In summation the following statements might be made:

1. Hours of exposure to amplified sound may be of more importance than that of high quality of sound. This and the small insert-type receivers using earmolds might be better since they appear to be more comfortable and can be tolerated for longer periods of time.

2. A group aid still provides the best sound as well as better control of input and output. It is also more versatile and its use should be mandatory in lower graded classes. Group aids should

be used full time in these classes.

The problem of using individual hearing aids was discussed at length. It is most advisable to have such aids fitted upon recommendation of the school, or a competent audiologist to insure that the proper type will be used. In the fitting and use of aids it was agreed that very few deaf persons are not able to receive some stimulation from amplified sounds, but that the use and benefit of such

sound varies widely so that every individual case must be studied to

decide if fitting an aid is justified.

In auditory training early diagnosis of hearing loss is important so that therapy can be initiated. This is one area of training which cannot be started too early. Caution must be used in relying on pure tone audiometry alone as equal results cannot always be expected from equal hearing loss. More complete testing methods are indicated today.

Rhythm training is an important part of speech training and is best done through auditory methods using live or recorded material. Commercial recordings which are suitable are hard to find and do not remain in stock very long. It was suggested that more suitable material

might be recorded by school personnel.

In the beginning, auditory training can be thought of as a separate subject requiring much training and with specific goals in mind. As the pupil progresses in school, emphasis is placed upon academic work with the result that auditory training becomes more of a teaching aid.

Explanation of one method of grading objectively the auditory progress of children was presented and discussed. It was agreed by the members assembled that more attention should be devoted to this aspect of auditory training.

Workshop III—RESEARCH IN AUDITORY TESTING

(Leader: Dr. FRED BERG, Oregon School, Salem)

(Recorder: Warren Johnson, Portland Center for Hearing and Speech)

Note.—Due to small number of participants, in the afternoon this workshop joined that of Workshop I, "Learning Experiences and Auditory Training," led by Miss Bessie Pugh.

Areas of discussion suggested by Dr. Berg:

1. Empirical versus experimental data corroborating the usefulness of auditory training.

The auditory training process itself.
 Evaluation of auditory training.

The session was spent in defining the aims and objectives of auditory training. The group felt that the chief objective of auditory training is to teach the individual to make maximum use of his residual hearing. Subgoals are to work on intelligibility of speech, improve gross sound discrimination of environmental sounds, improve speech sound discrimination and voice and speech improvement, improve language development, improve mental hygiene, improve esthetic appreciation, and help educational acceleration.

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A discussion followed of evidence which is available that the foregoing empirical goals and aims are being met. Cited were several studies done in auditory training by Wedenberg, Hudgins, DiCarlo, and Clarke, which demonstrated the benefits of effective auditory training on speech improvement, speech perception, school achieve-

ment, etc.

MONDAY, JUNE 26, 1961

MULTIPLE HANDICAPPED DEAF

Primary Building-Section Leader: Dr. Ralph Hoag, principal, Arizona School.

9:00-9:45 a.m.

Keynote speaker: Dr. Edgar Lowell, administrator, John Tracy Clinic. Interpreters: Harvey Christian, Charles B. Grow.

10:00-11:30 a.m. Panel discussion

Panel moderator: Dr. Robert Frisina, director, Hearing and Speech Center, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.

PANELISTS

Deaf-blind: Mr. Byron Berhow, superintendent, Washington State School for the Blind.

Emotionally disturbed: Dr. Sue Warren, chief psychologist, Oregon Fairview Home, Salem, Oreg.

Brain-injured and aphasic: Miss Ann Mulholland, Teacher Training Department, Northwestern University.

Cerebral palsied: Dr. William E. Miller, assistant director, Institute of Logopedics, Wichita, Kans.

Interpreters: Marshall Hester, Floyd McDowell, Mrs. Mabel Nilson.

1:15-2:30 p.m. Workshop meetings

Deaf-blind: Mr. Byron Berhow.

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Recorder: Mr. Paul Starkovich, Washington School.

Interpreter: Mrs. Mabel Nilson.

Emotionally disturbed deaf: Dr. Sue Warren.

Recorder: Mr. R. M. McAdams, North Carolina School.

Interpreter: Floyd McDowell.

Brain injured and aphasic deaf: Miss Anna Mulholland. Recorder: Mrs. Patrice Costello, Crotched Mountain School.

Interpreter: Marshall Hester.

Cerebral palsied deaf: Dr. William Miller. Recorder: Paul E. McLelland, Virginia School.

2:30-3:00 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3:00-3:45 p.m.

Entire section meeting to summarize workshops.

Dr. Hoae. I wish to welcome all of you to one of the first meetings of the convention and to the first session of the series of meetings dealing with the problems of the multiple handicapped deaf child in our schools. The great concern of teachers and administrators with the problems in this area is evidenced by your presence here to-day.

We are most fortunate to have as our keynote speaker, a person who has dedicated himself to research in our field and who has a special interest in the problems of the deaf child with additional handicaps. Our speaker has become known to us in recent years through extensive research in our field and through his association with John Tracy Clinic. He is a graduate of nearby Reed College, Portland, Oreg., and he earned his master's degree from Wesleyan University in Connecticut. His doctor's degree was conferred by one of the most honored and well known institutions of our country, Harvard University, where his work was held in such esteem that he was asked to stay on and teach in the Harvard School of Education. Our profession was then fortunate enough to have him join forces with us, where he is still serving with us in the capacity of administrator and director of research at John Tracy Clinic. Along with these many responsibilities he is actively associated with the University of Southern California, as professor of education.

I take great pleasure in introducing at this time our keynote speak-

er, Dr. Edgar L. Lowell.

A POINT OF VIEW REGARDING THE MULTIPLE HANDICAPPED DEAF

(Dr. EDGAE LOWELL, Administrator, John Tracy Clinic, Los Angeles, Calif.)

In presenting a point of view on the multiple handicapped deaf, I would like to organize my talk around several points. The first is that my remarks are directed to teachers of the deaf in regular schools for the deaf. The next is the fact that man's behavior is not guided by logical reasoning alone. Our feelings and emotions determine much of our activity, and as students of semantics are apt to point out, they also influence our attempts at rational thought. The point has been made many times by philosophers and psychologists, and in many different ways, and I need not labor the point. I think we are in agreement that sometimes our decisions are made on a logical, rational basis, and sometimes on an emotional basis.

This, it seems to me, is the situation which too often confronts us when we are called upon to deal with the multiple handicapped deaf child. My remarks today represent a position which I hope was arrived at on a logical, rational basis. I warn you in advance that it may not be a popular one, particularly with a group such as this, made up of people who are concerned with, and deal with the mul-

tiple handicapped deaf child.

The third point I wish to make is that in this country we often make the mistake of assuming that because a person is an authority

in one area, he is also an authority in other fields.

The famous scientist who speaks widely on political matters may not be any better qualified to deal with politics than you or I, yet people pay attention to him because he has a reputation as a scientist. There is the example of the admiral who becomes an authority on

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American education, and I could mention many more.

There is one necessary condition which must exist before this sort of overgeneralization of authority can take place. The new field must be lacking in leadership and authority within its own ranks. There must be a vacuum into which the self-styled expert can slip with ease. School teachers are not given space in the press to express their views about the way our submarine fleet is being run. Even the admiral does not tell the neurosurgeon how to perform a delicate brain operation. It is only in those areas in which there is ambiguity, uncertainty, lack of knowledge, and lack of leadership that we find the unqualified and inexperienced becoming an authority.

I believe that just such a condition exists in the field of the multiple handicapped deaf. With few exceptions we have very little knowledge, very few experts, and much ambiguity. The exceptions

are most apt to be those where the diagnosis is clear.

How many within our ranks are qualified to deal with the intricacies of educating a brain injured deaf child? I am reminded of Richard S. Lewis' excellent little book, written with Strauss and Lehtinen, "The Other Child," describing the behavior of the brain injured child. He points out, "One day, he may build a house out of blocks. The next day, he cannot. Another day, he plays quietly and cooperatively with other children. On another, he upsets the game, throws the bucket and shovel out of the sandbox and rushes off in all directions at once. He is thrown off stride by subtle events which scarcely bother the normal child. Changes in the weather may do it. He is sensitive to rising or falling barometric pressure. For this reason, it is not wise to start him on a new task or lesson before a storm."

How much more complex does even this condition become when the sensory input is impaired? With the challenge that faces us in the education of the deaf, how can we, in good conscience, take on such additional limitations to the educative process? I could cite similar examples from almost every handicapping condition that we

find along with deafness.

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For my next point, I would like to consider what we mean by the word "professional." Not so long ago one of my colleagues said, half jokingly, that he was a professional because he got paid for his work. I suggested that I knew a lot of people who got paid for their work but this didn't make them professionals, at least not in the sense that I use the term. The discussion bothered me, however, and I was prompted to refer to the dictionary which, I was somewhat chagrined to find, lists some nine definitions of the word "professional," the first of which is "following an occupation as a means of livelihood or for gain." The second meaning was "pertaining or appropriate to a profession." The word "profession" was described as "a vocation requiring knowledge of some department of learning or science." It is this latter meaning which I have in mind when I talk about the profession of teaching the deaf, and about our behavior as professionals. If we are going to be professional, and I think we all want to be, then the situation with the multiple handicapped deaf poses a problem deserving special consideration.

The question which I wish to raise is whether we are being professional in our present dealings with the multiple handicapped deaf. How many of us are really qualified to deal with another handicap besides deafness? I rather imagine that the majority of the people in the United States who are qualified are in this room at this time, and yet they would be the first to admit their own limitations. There are many more of us who are dealing with the multiple handicapped deaf who are clearly not professionally qualified for this work.

When we ask a teacher of the deaf to teach the multiple handicapped deaf it not only raises a question of being professional, it raises a question of whether this is fair. I suspect it is not fair to the teachers, to the multiple handicapped child, to the other children in the class, to the school, or to the deaf in general. If for some strange reason we ask an auto mechanic to fix a watch and he bungles the job, we do

not necessarily consider him a poor mechanic because his job is fairly well defined and understood, as is the job of the watch repairman. It is true that we might expect him to have some competence with watches because of his general mechanical knowledge and manual dexterity, but I rather think this is something we would not be likely to ask him to do.

On the other hand, when we ask a teacher of the deaf to teach a multiple handicapped child and she does a poor job, we are apt to judge her work, the work of her school, and in fact, the deaf in general on the basis of her failure. Of course, we can argue, as we did in the case of the garage mechanic, that she should have some general knowledge about the problems because of her profession as a teacher of the deaf, but we do not excuse her as we did the garage mechanic because the definition of appropriate areas of activity is not as well defined in our field as it is for auto mechanics and watchmakers. I am suggesting that we should pay attention to these distinctions.

Is it fair to the other children in the class? With a multiple handicapped child in the class the teacher necessarily spends a disproportionate amount of time with him and thus deprives all other children of their fair share of help. The multiple handicapped child may lower the overall achievement test scores for the class and for the whole school. While producing high achievement test scores is not the only objective of education, we do use them as some yardstick of our progress. We must if we are to evaluate and compare what we are doing. I know how we feel about it when a teacher without any training or experience with the deaf is put in charge of a class of deaf children. We say it is not professional, and we feel sorry for the children because we know that they will suffer.

It is fair to the deaf in general? The presence of the multiple handicapped in a school for the deaf can contribute to the general public misunderstanding of the behavior of the deaf. It is well known that if you observe a group of children, or people, or puppies for that matter, your attention is automatically called to the one who is different. It is a natural tendency to overlook the normal behavior of the majority and to get the impression that the behavior of the deviant is typical of the group as a whole.

Is it fair to the teacher? Can she hope to do an effective job in an area in which she is not prepared to function, or must she spend her time rationalizing and reasoning out why things turned out as badly as they did? Can she expect to receive the same satisfactions from her job as she could if she were dealing only with deaf children? Is she being professional?

Earlier I mentioned that we are apt to have more qualified people in areas where the diagnosis is clear such as the cerebral palsied deaf, the deaf-blind, and deaf-mentally retarded areas. There is fairly good consensus that these children should not be educated with regular deaf children. Why then should we contemplate the education of other multiple handicapped deaf in our schools for the deaf? Are we falling into the same trap mentioned earlier, where in the absence of knowledge or in the areas of uncertainty, the public seeks out anyone remotely connected with the field and invests them with the mantle of wisdom and authority? From a logical standpoint, and with a desire on our part to be professional, in the sense I have defined it, I do not see how we can contemplate the education of the multiple handi-

capped deaf in our schools for the deaf as they are presently or-

ganized.

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Now I expect by this time there are some people in the group who are in rather violent disagreement with what I have said. I can almost hear you saying, "But it's our responsibility. If we don't do it, who else will?" Let me hasten to remind you of my opening remarks in which I suggested that our behavior is not always guided by logical reasoning alone, but that our feelings and emotions play an

important part in determining what we do.

The next step is to consider whether our decisions regarding the multiple handicapped are being determined primarily by our emotions or by logical reasoning. I will admit that we all want to help the multiple handicapped deaf. As many of you know, I have concentrated on this problem myself for the past 5 years. The question is whether our emotionally directed efforts obscure the most appropriate course of action? When we knowingly accept the multiple handicapped into our schools are we really being wise? When we accept children without adequate screening and diagnosis are we being fair to any of those involved? It may give us some personal satisfaction for trying to help, or it may be relieving pressure from one area or another, but we are still faced with the question of whether this is the most appropriate thing to do.

Let me just project for a few minutes what might happen if we all agreed to stop serving the multiple handicapped deaf in our schools as they are presently organized. What would happen? What a hue and cry there would be, but then what would happen? First of all, we would be faced with strong pressure to improve and clarify our diagnostic procedures so that we could demonstrate that a particular child was actually multiple handicapped. While this is a fairly simple problem with some children, there are many more where it is easy to agree that he is "different" or aphasoid, or central, or atypical, or any of a host of other labels, but then to go right ahead and teach him as a deaf child and never bother to justify or verify that label. We never really have to work to understand his problem, because we do not have to be definite about his condition.

That would be the first step. I do not mean that we educators of the deaf would do it all. We know that when a problem is critical enough there are many allied disciplines that can be interested in helping us, if we ask for it, and if the necessary steps were taken to get

such a program underway.

Next, there would be great pressure exerted on our educational agencies to provide service for the multiple-handicapped deaf child. Once we stop providing a safety valve for this pressure by our present admission policies it would be necessary to establish special schools and to make some provision for the training of teachers to staff these schools. Here we, as educators of the deaf, might be called upon to play a role. Based upon our experience with deafness we might participate as members of a team to set up programs under which teachers might be prepared in more than one area, and prepared to do a "professional" job with the multiple-handicapped child.

The special schools would have to be staffed not only with specially

The special schools would have to be staffed not only with specially trained teachers, but with a highly skilled diagnostic group. In view of the present shortage of adequately trained personnel, it is likely that such a center would have to be set up on a regional rather than a State

or local basis. In addition to the service program for children, such centers should also provide a location for teacher training and research. Teachers to staff additional centers could be trained in such regional centers, and much valuable research work on the diagnostic and teaching process could be carried on. Just how far our role as educators of the deaf should go cannot be specified. Because our work requires such a high degree of specialization, it may be that we would be called upon to assume a leadership role in such an undertaking, and this would be legitimate as long as we are clear on the fact that we are entering as members of a team, bringing the training and experience of one discipline to bear upon a difficult problem.

I am happy to say that California has taken a beginning step in the direction of such a center. A bill was introduced in the last session of our legislature that will, we hope, ultimately lead to the establishment of a center on the same grounds, but in a separate unit, from the California School for the Deaf at Riverside. In support of this legislation we saw, under the leadership of the adult deaf, the wholehearted cooperation of all other groups interested in the deaf; educators in State and local schools, parents, private clinics, all working together to attempt to take the first steps to establish such a center. We hope that it will serve as a model for a professional approach to a difficult problem.

I do not anticipate any rapid action on such an ideal plan, and I realize that logically or emotionally we all must face certain realities and certain demands in the work which we do. The present conditions won't change overnight, but I think they will change—and for the better.

It has been a pleasure to present this point of view. I know that you will not all agree with it, but I imagine it will stir up some discussion, and it may even cause you to think about your own professional role in dealing with the multiple-handicapped deaf.

Mr. Berhow. The problem of educating deaf-blind children has been recognized increasingly since 1837 when Laura Bridgeman enrolled at Perkins School for the Blind. Later Helen Keller gained national publicity by her achievement of speech and her excellent progress in higher education and public service. Today there are eight residential schools with education departments for children who are both deaf and blind.

The National Committee for the Deaf-Blind states:

A deaf-blind child is one whose combination of handicaps prevents him from profiting satisfactorily from programs provided for the blind child or the deaf child.

One easily deduces the magnitude of the existing educational problem.

Some statistics as of Jan. 1, 1960

Deaf-blind children under 20 years	372 87
Deaf-blind children at home (22 are 4 years old and under; 168 are over 4 years)	190
Deaf-blind children under 20 years of age in institutions for mentally re- tarded	74
Deaf-blind children under 20 years of age in tutorial situations Deaf-blind adults known	(1)
¹ 3,300 or more.	'

There are more statistics, but from these one may get the size of

the problem.

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The American Foundation for the Blind inaugurated services for the deaf-blind in January 1946. Miss Annette Dinsmore heads this service, assisted by Miss Betty Riley. They work for general welfare of all deaf-blind persons and as such they fill a committee post on the national committee for the deaf-blind which is composed of representatives from the schools for these children, from the AAIB, from the CEASD, and from the foundation. This committee has met four or five times since its inception in 1952 and the number of these children in school has increased over 50 percent as a result. Much remains to be done in this small but important educational work.

The purpose of the workshop in deaf-blind education is to advertise and create interest in furthering this program, which is so small statistically in comparison with others. This work is real and earnest. Teacher-training and recruitment with scholarships of financial aid are offered. The AAIB and the CEASD has a special teacher's cer-

tificate for this work.

For the rest of our 20 minutes this a.m., I wish to present Carl Davis, psychologist from Perkins School for the Blind, Watertown, Mass., under the directorship of Dr. E. J. Waterhouse, for a discussion of diagnosis, evaluation, and other problems which will highlight the considerations in this work. This afternoon, in room 12 of this building we will (1) see film of the deaf-blind work at Perkins, (2) have a live demonstration by a teacher and a deaf-blind child from the Washington State School for the Blind, and (3) have a question and answer period. With the demonstration, we will also show a 1'-minute film titled: "A Day With Debbie." Debbie is the deaf-blind girl who will be with us this afternoon. I hope many of you will be with us for this session, which will be most interesting. Now may I present Carl Davis, of Perkins School.

THE DEAF-BLIND CHILD—DIAGNOSIS AND ELEVATION

(Carl J. Davis, psychologist, Perkins School for the Blind, Watertown, Mass.)

There is a definite purpose in not calling a deaf-blind child a deaf and blind child. The handicaps of deafness and of blindness each produce children with characteristics that are unique to the particular disability. When both sensory defects are present in an individual, although many of the characteristics of the deaf child and of the blind child may be present, the end result is not a simple combination of characteristics; it is personality structure that is unique and exceedingly complex and the range of variation within the group is greater than the addition of the ranges of variation for the two separate groups. This latter is due to the fact that any child is considered deaf-blind whose combination of auditory and visual handicap is such that he cannot be educated adequately in a normal program for deaf or for blind children.

What is our purpose in diagnosis and evaluation of the deaf-blind child? We want to determine the nature and extent of his hearing loss: central, peripheral, or psychogenic deafness, and how severe is

his loss? We want to determine the nature and degree of his visual loss: does he have sufficient residual vision to function and to conceptualize himself as a seeing person who should be educated with print materials, or is it so severe that he is functionally and conceptually a blind person who must be educated with braille and tactual materials? We want to know whether this child is to be considered an educable or trainable child, and if he is educable, we want to know the extent to which we might expect him to progress in an educational program. The foregoing are the goals we have set for ourselves, but

at present our methods are still in the exploratory stage.

Our diagnostic work is performed by three people, and whenever possible we try to obtain certain types of advance information. The more complete a medical history we have, the more successfully we can evaluate. We like to obtain complete prenatal, obstetrical, pediatric, neurological, ophthalmological, and audiological information; plus any additional medical information that may be available. A complete family history is sought for every child's family and a complete developmental history. If the child has been known to clinics and/or schools, we request complete psychological and educational data. When this data has been compiled, and it is often incomplete, the diagnostic workers see the child and his parents.

One of the team members works with the child to determine his level of auditory and language function. Formal audiometric testing is attempted, but it is often unsuccessful with preschool children. Informal testing with noisemakers and play materials is conducted to determine both whether there is a response to auditory stimuli, and whether the child possesses any inner, receptive, or expressive language. In addition, tests are made to determine whether there is any

motor dysfunction.

The second member of the team attempts to determine the level of educability of the child. This task has been complicated by the fact that most testing materials for the blind are oral-verbal and most testing materials for the deaf require the use of vision. By taking elements from a variety of known tests, such as the Binet, Cattell, Grace Arthur, Nebraska, Ontario, and Watson-Shurrager, we have a series of techniques that through modification of the test item and for its presentation to the subject, provides the examiner with information upon which evaluative judgments may be based.

Each of the aforementioned workers during the examination period observes and notes all behavioral responses in order that any signs of behavior that is atypical for a deaf-blind child will be noted for further study. This is necessary to differentiate between behavioral patterns that are due to deprivation of environmental stimulation that is solely due to reduced sensory input and environmental deprivation, that is due to an adverse home-family situation. In other words, is such behavior the result of endogenous or exogenous factors?

While the child is being seen consecutively by two of the workers, the third member of the team sees the parents, at least the mother, and preferably both, for a semistructured interview. The structure is provided by the use of a modified social maturity scale, which is adjusted to the visual handicap and incorporates a minimum of items dependent exclusively upon hearing and speech. The purpose of the interview is to obtain both a measure of social development and an understanding of the emotional and physical environment in which the

child has been brought up. This has proved to be an important and

productive part of the total process.

After the work with the child and parents has been completed, the results are synthesized and recommended and predictions are made. Due to the fact that the number of children seen to date (less than 75) has been small and greatly varied in terms of auditory and visual loss, there is no valid statistical basis for prediction. However, using past experience as a base of reference for subjective evaluation, with incorporation of a purposefully optimistic outlook (to protect the child) has led us to believe that we are moving in the right direction when we see a majority of our children with favorable recommendations succeed in programs for the deaf-blind. We are constantly striving to improve our techniques and to increase our sampling in hope that we can increase the validity of our methods.

SETTING OUR SIGHTS FOR THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED DEAF

(SUE ALLEN WARREN, Ph. D., chief psychologist, Oregon Fairview Home, Salem)

For me to come before you today to speak of working with the deaf seems somewhat like carrying coals to Newcastle * * * or oranges to California. Since I first learned I was to make this presentation (in January) I have been reading avidly on the subject; one thing I have learned and that is that one does not become an expert on the deaf in 6 months. Something else I have learned is that there is very little agreement on the topic of the emotionally disturbed deaf child.

Part of our problem in discussing this group of children lies in the matter of definitions. You all know the difficulties we encounter in defining the meaning of "deafness." The old White House Conference-professional workers controversy was a good illustration of this difficulty. Trying to define "emotionally disturbed" is a much more confusing task. What one expert calls disturbed another expert may see as "normal" or "within normal limits." Or, vice versa.

We cannot refuse to face the problem or escape it through the process of wading around in semantics. Therefore, let us roughly define the emotionally disturbed child as one who is not able to meet his potential or is seriously handicapped in doing so either because of difficulty in his relationships with others or because he is unable to do so without tremendous personal sacrifice. (This is, of course, a paraphrase on the definition of mental health in common use to-day.)

Actually, almost any of us might at some time in life find ourselves described as "emotionally disturbed"—at least temporarily. The children with whom we work may well show temporary disturbances or they may show more lasting personality disorganizations.

Because of the lack of agreement on a definition and because the status of a child may change, it has been most difficult to learn what is the incidence of the emotionally disturbed deaf children in the United States. We all know that the incidence of deaf children in the country has been often underestimated. For example, the 1954 survey of Mackie and Dunn suggests that about 1½ percent of the school age children are deaf or hard of hearing; a number of surveys place the incidence closer to 4 or 5 percent. The incidence of emotionally disturbed children is subject to study. If we include the

delinquent population among the emotionally disturbed, the incidence rises considerably. For example, the incidence of juveniles who are called "delinquent" is generally estimated at about 2½ percent. Mental hospital admissions and children treated in outpatient clinics given in the literature are only a suggestion because many emotionally disturbed children never are brought for professional help; however, for what the figures indicate, in the midfifties such children numbered between 400,000 and 500,000 under age 24. Martens estimates about 2½ percent of our children are emotionally disturbed. Putting all these figures together and making a "guesstimate," it is probable that the incidence of seriously disturbed deaf children is probably not more than 2 or 3 in 1,000.

Thus, it appears that the seriously disturbed deaf are not a large problem numerically. But like the flea, the virus, and the decimal point, size of the group is a poor indication of the degree of difficulty encountered with the problem. Furthermore, the teacher is frequently faced with children who have milder emotional disturbances. Is this a greater problem for teachers of the deaf than for other

teachers?

Perhaps this is a good time to dispose of a common fallacy held by "outsiders." Many persons who have never worked with them have the notion that the deaf, almost by definition, will be emotionally disturbed. If one means by emotionally disturbed that the individual has problems, true. Who doesn't? And perhaps the communication problems of the deaf bring inherent problems and more frustrations than the "normal" person meets. But there is little consistent evidence that hearing impairment is directly or necessarily related to personality. While deafness, with the restrictions it imposes on a child, may tend to facilitate certain personality patterns, these are not necessarily poorer patterns. Many of the studies suggesting poor personality integration on the part of the deaf have used the only measures available and these personality measures leave a great deal to be desired in the way of reliability and validity when used with other groups and we have no reason to believe that they are any more applicable to the deaf than they are to these other groups.

So, rather than cite research studies, let us consider the situation of

the deaf child and possibilities of emotional disturbance.

It seems to me that the important thing to remember is that the deaf child is first of all a child, an individual. As such, he is subject to the same frustrations and problems of children everywhere, plus additional ones brought by his communication handicap. (He is also subject to the same hazards of parent-child interaction as other children.) Thus, he may be either deaf, disturbed, or both. (This reminds me of the time my own son came in one day when he was 2 to show me a face he had covered with lipstick. Scrubbed, he was still red. He had measles. As a matter of fact, he also had chicken pox. How one of these affected the other, we don't know, but each brought its own difficulties.) So, we may have a child who is deaf, emotionally disturbed, and possibly brain damaged, in addition. How these affect each other we do not know. We might speculate on some possibilities, however.

First, let us consider the emotionally disturbed child who has been called semisocialized or unsocialized. Such children may or may not

have developed a set of social skills for dealing with their peers. But they seem to be unable or unwilling to conform to the code of society in general. Sometimes they are called primary behavior disorders and sometimes called delinquent. It seems to me that the deaf child is a little less likely to fall into this category than into some other, if he becomes disturbed.

A more likely category might be that referred to as the neurotic child. Such children often have conflicts of which they are scarcely aware or are unaware. Sometimes their overt behavior of acting out and aggressiveness is reminiscent of the delinquent child's behavior,

but the underlying dynamics are apparently different.

Such children often have a poor self-concept, a low sense of self-worth; they often feel inadequate and rejected. Some are guilt-ridden. Sometimes they have been overprotected rather than openly rojected. It is not difficult to see how a deaf child might develop such a personality pattern; this might be even more likely if the child

has not been recognized as having a hearing loss.

Another category, the so-called psychotic child. In contrast to the neurotic child who tends to distort reality to fit into his need system, the psychotic child is said to create his own world and live in it. In my own experience over many years of work in clinics and schools and hospitals, I would venture to say that the psychotic child is indeed Because of the dramatic picture he presents, he has been described often in the literature. But the classroom teacher seldom encounters him; when she does, there is very little, if anything, she can do for him. His tendency for tantrums, aggressive behavior, withdrawal, paranoid ideas, peculiar verbalizations, or confusion make him a management problem in the classroom. Since he presents so many difficulties and since the teacher is unlikely to be in a position to help him, he would probably be best excluded from the regular The so-called autistic child is often confused with the classroom. deaf; when children described as autistic have been that way all their lives there is little known therapy that will mitigate the situation much; when they have regressed from a previously normal level, they will need expert help from a psychiatric team and will not become the responsibility of the classroom teacher until after treatment.

Thus, the teacher of the deaf might be most likely to be concerned with the child who shows neurotic behavior. Or, as I prefer to see it, she might be best able to help children who have developed inadequate adjustive techniques. The teacher's role will be to recognize that the child's behavior is motivated by some tensions, will set realistic and reassuring limits on the child's behavior, and will help to build self-

esteem through insured successes.

Thus, I would see the sixties bringing increased understanding of the problems of children in trouble, whether these children are deaf

or not.

Beyond this, it might be hoped that the sixties will bring increased understanding of the deaf child and his problems, understanding that can be gained by patient and painstaking research. When these data are available, perhaps we can develop better means of helping deaf children develop satisfactory and satisfying adjustive techniques for meeting problems.

For the smaller, but still very important, group of seriously disturbed deaf children, perhaps the sixties can offer the hope of cooperative efforts on their behalf, efforts that probably will have to be made without regard to political boundaries. Few States will have sufficient numbers of these children to set up their own programs; perhaps one State can plan for one type of multiple-handicapped child and another State reciprocate by training a different multiple handicap. In these days of airplanes and telephones, distance is no more a limiting factor than we make it. Perhaps such a group as the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education or the southern regional board can help in coordinating such activities.

Finally, it seems likely that the sixties may bring improved and increased diagnostic services for emotionally disturbed deaf children, as well as for other handicapped children. Again, much careful research at all levels is needed and seems not an unrealistic goal.

THE MULTIPLE-HANDICAPPED CHILD-THE BRAIN-INJURED CHILD

(Ann M. Mulholland, assistant professor of educational audiology, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.)

It has been apparent for the past several years that there is concern among educators of the deaf about the number of atypical deaf children enrolled in their schools. That such concern is increasingly evident is reflected in the emphasis at professional meetings and in the literature on the nomenclature, the diagnostic techniques, and the educational placement and planning for variously described atypical deaf children (1, 3, 5, 7). While the solution to all aspects of such a complex has yet to be reached, clarification of some of the problems is essential, and, we hope, imminent. Intensive and longitudinal studies of so-called brain-injured children should provide illuminating and corroborative evidence of subtle yet significant differences in behavior, learning, and adjustment. However, all of those professionally concerned may not be in complete accord. There is likely to be some degree of agreement on the symptomatology and behavioral indicators of brain injury, less agreement on terminology, and doubtless even less agreement on educational placement, procedures, and prognosis.

The term "brain injured," by its very all-inclusiveness, may contribute to the confusion of the teacher who feels inadequate to handle brain-injured children. This is particularly true when to the teacher the concept of brain damage connotes the behavioral pattern described

as the Strauss syndrome.

Because of the nature of the nervous system, the intricacies of the neural pathways, and the fundamental differences in function of specific areas of the brain, the term brain-injured deaf child becomes so broad as to be relatively useless in terms of the classroom teacher. Etiologically the concept has merit, but educationally it can be misleading and, to some classroom teachers threatening even traumatizing because of their own feelings. Just as the term "deaf" has been refined in definition according to location of the site of the deficit as in sensory-neural, conductive, central deafness so should our terms become more specific and definitive in describing the specific behavior and learning patterns of the child who has handicaps in addition to his deafness.

While there has been little unanimity in clarifying the terminology, leaders in the field have utilized such terms as the Strauss syndrome, neurophrenia, amongst others. More recently introduced is the term psychoneurological learning disorders which by definition includes both behavioral and psychological deviations caused by neurologic damage irrespective of age of onset or etiology (3). To use the term to describe even minimal neurological deficit has significance. This concept when applied to deaf children as a concomitant which may appear simultaneously with deafness is useful particularly when it meets the needs of the classroom teacher. To describe specifically the strengths of the multiple-handicapped deaf child without needless overemphasis on his weakness suggests a healthy approach to diagnostic teaching. Such an approach should develop the deaf child with psychoneurological learning disorders to his potential without causing the child emotional problems resulting from his or her teach-

er's frustrations.

This type of diagnostic teaching which is necessary for such multiple-handicapped children is a satisfying experience to the alert and profesionally oriented teacher. Her role is not that of a diagnostician nor yet that of a psychologist, but her observations of the child's learning difficulties contribute significantly in clarifying for both the school and the home the appropriate program for education and management. It is she whose continuing evaluation of the neurologically impaired deaf child facilitates the diagnosis of more subtle behavioral deviations as well as equally subtle aberrant learning patterns of the child who does not progress academically. Alertness to interpersonal relations, to general adjustment in the classroom, as well as cognizance of more specific difficulties encountered in learning communication skills, in achieving expected levels of language accomplishment, or in the learning process itself results in an understanding of the specific deterrents to academic progress of each individual child.

The deviant children in the school for the deaf are not necessarily obviously neurologically involved. The discrepancy between measured intellectual capacity and educational achievement level as revealed both in the classroom and on standardized tests may be startling. In terms of corroborative evidence of neurological impairment electroencephalographic and neurological studies are imperative.

As a foundation for the discussion in this afternoon's session, permit me to describe several types of atypical children commonly enrolled in schools for the deaf and who present problems of adjustment or of learning.

Case 1

Maria at the age of 11 years 9 months in spite of intensive teaching by experienced teachers of the deaf had not developed adequate verbal

communication skills.

Measures of auditory acuity revealed the following configurations: Right ear, 90 decibels at 500 cycles per second, 95 decibels at 1,000 cycles per second; 100 at 2,000 cycles per second; left ear: 85 at 500 cycles per second, 100 at 1,000 cycles per second, no response at 2,000 cycles per second. Visual functioning was within normal limits while mentally on performance items she demonstrated above average to superior functioning. Motorically there was considerable retardation espe-

cially in items involving balance, falling as low as 5 years 6 months on some items. Tasks involving visuomotor coordination were poor.

The most apparent deviations were in language competency revealing retardation both receptively and expressively. On the Costello speech-reading test word list she scored one correct item out of a possible 25-ball. Comprehension was through gesture and simple signs. Reading age for paragraph meaning was 8 years 6 months and for word recognition 8 years 10 months. Expressively Maria's speech was unintelligible, but her use of gesture was excellent. Written language was at the naming level.

While the neurological evaluation indicated normal functioning, the electroencephalographic study revealed a mildly abnormal EEG.

Maria is the type of atypical child who may be described as having an aphasia for speech reading. Hence, her education will be dependent upon her ability to relate the experience to the printed symbol rather than through the usual channel for deaf children, the visual speech reading. Emphasis on both audition and a formalized approach should be avoided.

Case II

This inability of a normally intelligent, profoundly deaf child to learn through speech reading was quite evident in young Tommy who by the age of 8 had become a serious behavior problem. His feelings toward school were such that he hid his clothes so that he would not have to attend. Nausea on the schoolbus daily created additional problems. In the classroom he routinely withdrew from situations involving group participation in oral communication, preferring to work on puzzles or a similar task independently.

Mentally he had normal capacity but with some scatter in the various performance items. Motorically he showed marked limitations including the inability to tie his own shoes. Both receptively and expressively he functioned symbolically at a concrete, simplified gesture level, but he was able to match at a perceptual level printed symbols only after the requirements of the task were demonstrated. Oral expressive language was uniquely attempted. To reproduce simple words such as shoe, ball, airplane he used his fingers in an attempt to manipulate his lips in the correct formation of the word.

In this case the results of the neurological evaluation and the elec-

troencephalographic study indicated normal functioning.

To insure his psychological well-being and to relieve pressure on the family, but primarily to initiate some means of communication, resident placement in the manual department of a school for the deaf was arranged.

Case III

Susan typifies the young deaf child whose acquisition of oral expressive language does not reach the expected level in spite of adequate training and management both at home and in the nursery.

Mentally Susan was functioning at the upper limits of normalcy corroborated by her social quotient 112 as well as by other behavior. Motorically there was some scatter on the test items, but genetic development was completely normal. Measures of auditory acuity revealed the following responses:

	125	250	500	1,000	2,000	3,000	4,000
Right	55 55	50 50	45 45	75 75	80 105	90 105	No response.

Language functioning receptively and expressively was gesture of excellent quality. Speech reading was accomplished with situational clues. Oral expressive output was negligible when compared with the extant residual hearing.

Deafness was presumed due to streptomycin administered at 2

months of age for pneumonia.

With the usable hearing present and with good amplification, using both a body-worn aid and group amplification, little except vocalization resulted. Recognizable oral symbols have not appeared.

Electroencephalographic and neurological study revealed some temporal lobe involvement in the reported abnormal EEG and corroborates the hearing loss and the presence of aphasia.

Since Susan is primarily functioning through the visual modality, emphasis in training should be directed through this channel.

Case IV

Paul was a profoundly deaf child whose deafness was further com-

plicated by emotional disturbances.

Auditory testing in sound field indicated profound deafness with responses only at 500 cycles per second. Birth history revealed that Paul had been cyanotic and edematous for 4 days postnatally, but genetic development was reported to have proceeded normally. Mental functioning was within normal limits. Receptively and expressively language was limited to extremely concrete and primitive gesture.

In the nursery program Paul withdrew from the group, retreating to a corner. Grinding of the teeth was relatively constant. Both eye contact and imitation were markedly deficient. Interpersonal relations were well nigh absent whether involving adults or children; interest in objects and toys was evident. Occasional imitation of the activity of another child was noted, but this was infrequent.

At this time parental concern for speech production was reflected

and withdrawal symptoms noted regularly.

Electroencephalographic and neurologic study indicated normal neurological findings except for the hearing loss and a borderline positive EEG for his age group involving parietal, temporal, and

occipital lobe function.

It is fortunate that we can report success in reducing the parental concern over speech and in structuring procedures at home and in the nursery which have led to balance and adjustment by Paul and his parents. Presently he displays good inner language, integrates body concepts, structures toys realistically, uses simple gesture and

vocalizations expressively, and is becoming more aggressive in group situations as well as playing with children in the neighborhood. While Paul accepts group amplification, a body-worn aid provokes displeasure. It is interesting to note that he responds better in a small group of children while in a two-child-plus-therapist situation Paul is less intact. On two recent occasions following overstimulating and fatiguing weekends he retreated to his isolation corner. However, this was temporary.

Case V

One of the most interesting children for whom we have been planning educationally is Jack. He represents a typical brain-injured deaf child in the school for the deaf. The severity of the deafness

measured at approximately 70 decibels in sound field.

Mentally he was within normal limits although some scatter was revealed. The social quotient was approximately 50 percent of normal. He had been first seen at the age of 2 years 4 months, at which time the severe hearing loss and ataxia were noted. Etiology is presumed to be the result of complications during the pregnancy, prematurity, cyanosis at birth.

Characteristically Jack displayed the classical behavioral symptomatology of the brain-injured syndrome with the addition of hearing impairment. His attention span was fleeting, he perseverated, eye contact was negligible, interpersonal relations were absent except at the level of satisfying physiological needs. Marked mannerisms of

a superimposed psychological nature were evident.

The neurological findings noted the disjointed gait, the hypotonia, the lack of attention and considerable frequent but purposeful movements characteristic of the child with organic brain disease, but the electroencephalographic findings were normal. The followup study occurring 1 year later indicated minimal neurological signs but the electroencephalographic report revealed parietal lobe envolvement with the comment "It is obvious that the brain is maturing electrically."

Educational placement for Jack was accompanied by frequent consultations with suggestions and support for both the teacher and the family. He attended for 1½ hours daily for 1 academic year a public nursery program for hearing impaired children. Since then he has been enrolled in a residential school which reports that he is a frail

boy but that he has adjusted to the situation.

Case VI

Pamela is the child in the classroom of the school for the deaf who is

the different one—the rubella child.

Auditorially there was good useful hearing reflected in the audiometric results: 40 decibels at 500 cycles per second; 60 decibels at 1,000 cycles per second bilaterally. Mentally evidence suggestive of slowness appeared to mask her true intellectual functioning because of her inability to comprehend the verbal instructions without demonstration. Successful performance in the most difficult tasks was characteristic of this child. Presumably this represents her minimal intellectual functioning. Pamela's good-to-superior locomotive coordination was aided by both visual clues and visual kinesthetic clues. Both finger dexterity and visual motor coordination were normal.

Receptively there was good comprehension via speech reading and auditory clues in context. Expressively, facility was reduced, but with 2- or 3-word commonly used expressions, Pamela demonstrated appropriate usage as well as comprehension. Construction was of subject-verb-object type, but she amplified her thoughts with both gesture and drawing.

While the findings of the neurological study were normal, the EEG was reported to be severely abnormal with the entire record suggestive of diffuse brain damage but with the irritative focus in the right

temporal area.

Pamela is progressing in her understanding and use of language concretely and in some instances abstractly. Her school placement is more than satisfactory since her teacher considers Pamela a challenge and utilizes appropriate and definitive techniques and procedures.

Case VII

Peter was making poor progress academically in his school and had become a behavior problem. He had begun to show withdrawal

symptoms and had reduced his attempts to communicate.

Auditory testing indicated profound deafness. Motorically he was awkward, disjointed, ambidextrous. Mental testing revealed expected variability demonstrating on simple, concrete visual tasks adequate or better performance. On tasks involving abstraction and conceptualization there was evident retardation. On nonverbal tasks Peter demonstrated above-average functioning. Birth history indicated prematurity with manual methods presumably used to delay the birth process. Genetic development was likewise slow.

While the electroencephalographic findings were normal, the neurological study revealed minimal central nervous system involvement

suggestive of a lesion in the left frontal area.

Language functioning was sharply reduced with speech at the naming level only, reading at the single word stage, number concepts lacking but enumeration noted. Peter evidenced not aphasic symptoms but a superimposed learning disorder on profound deafness.

Peter has been removed from the residential school which he was attending and enrolled in a day class with a male instructor. His previous expressions of aggression and hostility have been considerably reduced. Emphasis on reading and writing continue, but no pressure for speech is permitted. While it was necessary for the parents to sharply limit their aspirations for him, Peter has developed self-confidence and is enjoying some success in his school and family

relations.

To attribute to the deaf children described above an all-encompassing label masks the nature of their very specific individual needs and potentialities. To establish a proper educational program, while more definitive descriptive terms may be essential, specific information pertaining to the deviations in learning or adjustment patterns will provide for the individual differences of the brain-injured deaf child. As knowledge of such deviant behavior is accumulated and analyzed, as refinement in evaluation techniques crystallizes the weaknesses and the strengths of each child, so will teaching techniques improve and make for more satisfying learning for both pupil and teacher.

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THE CEREBRAL PALSIED DEAF CHILD

(Dr. WILLIAM E. MILLER, assistant director, Institute of Logopedics, Wichita, Kans.)

Today we wish to consider the education of the cerebral palsied deaf child. For a number of years my employment has been with the Institute of Logopedics in Wichita, and, therefore, my thoughts are based largely upon the work done with the children in that organization.

From the start of its existence, 27 years ago, the Institute of Logopedics has done a great deal of work with the cerebral palsied children. The philosophy of this organization, however, has always aimed to work with individuals having all types of communication handicaps including those with hearing loss. It was natural to develop a program for training of deaf and hard of hearing cerebral palsied individuals.

A report of physical examination and detailed case history furnish background information for the speech examination. Where the person being examined is a cerebral palsied deaf child, the examiner makes every effort to determine the child's ability to communicate, imitate speech movements, control speech musculature, phonate, and control breathing. He needs to predict in some measure what the child might be able to learn in speech and language development.

As part of the communication examination, a psychometric test is administered. The psychologist may use any test which gives chance of success, but the Leiter international performance scale has been found to be extremely useful in testing these children. The individual being tested is shown how to proceed and then he performs tasks by moving wooden blocks with drawings or pictures into prescribed places.

This test is especially good with the deaf child because he does not need to have speech or language, and, therefore, the lack of language does not prevent him from demonstrating his mental capacities. The cerebral palsied child is likewise capable of doing this test because he can usually manipulate the wooden blocks and push them into the proper places even though considerably handicapped through coordination difficulties. In this test the examiner is interested not only in the mental level as such, but also in the way the child goes about solving problems. In all phases of the communication examination the speech examiner is watching for signs of aphasia, mental retardation,

or any other condition which will influence the program and progress of the child. He is interested in gaining as nearly a true estimate of

the potential of the child as possible.

One of the most important items in the examination is, of course, the test of hearing. The best test of this nature is one in which the child will give a voluntary action of some type in response to sound. Experience has shown that a child with a mental age of 3½ years or higher will usually give fairly reliable responses. In doing this test a technique is quite often used which was developed by Dr. A. W. G. Ewing of Manchester, England. In this test, pantomime and example are used to convey to the child the idea that he is to make a particular movement in response to sound. These movements may be to pile one block upon another or put a ring on a peg. With a cerebral palsied child it is usually best to use some type of movement which does not require fine coordination. Sometimes these cerebral palsied children enjoy a procedure which involves some gross physical activity. It is probable that this is pleasing to them because they are so frequently limited in the actions that they can carry out. A number of children have been seen who cooperated thoroughly and gave quite reliable test results when they could enthusiastically push blocks off on the floor or throw rope rings in response to sound signals.

Whenever possible it is advisable to determine how well the child responds to speech. In the original conditioning procedure the examiner will often indicate that the child should respond to a particular word such as "go" or a similar type of word. By varying the intensity of the voice or the distance from the speaker to the child, it is possible to get an idea about his hearing sensitivity for speech. Where speech audiometric equipment is available the intensity of the speech can be more accurately controlled and a more definitive measure can be obtained. If the child has some knowledge of speech and language he can often be asked to point to pictures illustrating spondaic words such as "cowboy" and "hotdog." The threshold measurement is usually considered the level at which the child responds correctly to

50 percent of the words presented.

Some attempts are made to use galvanic skin response audiometry. In general, this has not been found to be very satisfactory. Frequently the cerebral palsied child has random movements which produce G.S.R. readings and it is often difficult to separate these from responses to sound. Also, the cerebral palsied child may not yield a consistent galvanic skin response to the shock or the tone. Sometimes these children respond quite violently to the shock and other times they seem to ignore it completely. In general, the results obtained by G.S.R. on cerebral palsied children are hardly worth the effort needed to carry out the test.

Every child brought to the institute who displays a physical problem of any type is also examined by an orthopedist. This physician has had training not only as an orthopod but also in cerebral palsy. Final diagnosis as to the type of cerebral palsy is his responsibility. This physician prescribes braces, occupational therapy, physical therapy, physical education or creative therapy depending upon his find-

ings.

At the conclusion of all the various tests, the examiner plans a program to give the individual the particular training which he needs.

The philosophy and aim of the program is to "treat the whole child"

as nearly as possible.

Since the program at the Institute of Logopedics is centered around speech, every person who receives instruction has individual speech lessons. In the speech lessons for the cerebral palsied deaf child a great deal of the early work is devoted to the development of language, to beginning speech reading and auditory training. At the same time work is done to help the child improve in control of his tongue, lips, and jaw muscles. The speech therapist needs to know techniques of deaf education and also techniques that are used for teaching the various types of cerebral palsied individuals. The oral method of teaching is used and therefore the lesson plan is aimed toward developing a basis for oral communication. A program of chewing, sucking, and swallowing is usually instigated very early in order to help the child develop better his reflexes for these movements. As these movements improve, the child has better opportunity to use them in speech. Thus, the speech therapist must know how to meet the needs of the cerebral palsied child and also the deaf child.

Speech lessons alone are not enough for a child with this particular handicap. He needs a classroom situation in which he can learn academic material. Here, of course, the basic idea is to teach language. it is necessary for the child to develop an understanding of language, and a realization that language is useful. Many of the basic methods used in the class for the cerebral palsied deaf child are the same as those used in a regular school for the deaf, but the teaching materials must be special and the children need more time to carry out assignments. When a cerebral palsied deaf child is given a task it will frequently take him two or three times as long to accomplish the job as for a deaf child who has no cerebral palsy. Also, the child usually needs a lot more individual attention from the instructor so that it is likely that the teacher can handle a fewer number of children. Of course, these children also need auditory training procedures, but must frequently be helped to get the headphones on and off their heads and set the unit at the proper level of gain. Speech reading is

as much a part of their training as it is for any deaf child. Many of the deaf cerebral palsied children require physical therapy. Frequently the cerebral palsied child needs to be taught such things as rolling over, crawling, sitting, standing, and walking. This program must be carried out by a physical therapist who has had special training in working with cerebral palsied children. As the child progresses in his training, one finds that he not only has better control for sitting, standing, walking, and so forth, but he also gains better control of the speech musculature. Thus, as his coordination improves, he has greater ability to talk, he has more interest in talking and more to talk about. He also gains better use of his hands so that he can manipulate materials, write, typewrite, and go on to other activities. As he improves in these other areas, he is also able to progress much more rapidly in his academic performance. A child with severe athetosis of his neck muscles finds that he is unable to hold his head still enough to do any speech reading. Through physical therapy, he may learn to control his neck muscles well enough to hold his head so that he can lipread. Some children need specially built chairs to hold their heads still enough so they can watch a person's face or look intently at an object.

Many of the cerebral palsied deaf children are given occupational therapy in which they are taught to take care of their personal needs. These items include eating, putting on and removing clothing, fastening clothing, combing hair, typing, and various other activities. As with physical therapy, occupational therapy usually gives the child improved coordination and this offers new opportunities for improvement in his academic achievement. He also has more interest in making progress in academic work as well as in speech.

Some of the children are given physical education. In this program they are taught games and various activities of a physical nature. This type of training also helps improve coordination and has a direct

bearing on speech and academic achievement.

Some of the cerebral palsied deaf children are given creative therapy. In this program they are encouraged to do painting, finger painting, various types of drawings, ceramics, and certain crafts. In this way the deaf cerebral palsied child, who has had so little opportunity for communication, finds another means of expression.

The cerebral palsied child can usually enjoy a recreational program which includes motion pictures, boy scouts, girl scouts, and various other activities. A great deal of special effort needs to be made to bring the children to these activities or bring the activities to the children. The average deaf child is certainly cut off from many of the experiences enjoyed by the normal child because he cannot hear the various sounds going on. The typical cerebral palsied child is likewise cut off because of his limitations in physical activity. When a child has both a severe hearing loss and severe physical involvement, his environment is extremely limited. It is necessary, therefore, to make special plans and efforts to give these children opportunity to participate in all types of recreational as well as educational activities.

It is important that the child perform or participate in a language activity in order to learn the full meaning of the language item. Happily the cerebral palsied deaf child can participate and learn language if proper materials are used. Certain items are available commercially, while many need to be made to fit the needs of an individual child or a group of children with problems of a similar nature. A good technique for teaching numbers is to use large dominoes made of 34-inch plywood which are about 3 inches wide and 6 inches long. Indentations approximately three-eighths of an inch in diameter are made to give the numbers on each end of the domino. With some children it is good to have the indentations painted with various colors. An example would be that all the number "1" indentations might be white, all the number "2's" red, all the "3's" blue and so forth. The child can thus match not only the number of the dots but also the colors. These dominoes can be moved around rather easily by a cerebral palsied child and if he drops one on the floor, no harm is done.

A similar item for teaching numbers is a wooden jigsaw puzzle type of set called Number-ite which is made by the Judy Co. of Minneapolis, Minn. This set is made up of a number of pieces of wood which fit together like a jigsaw puzzle. The first piece of wood has a number "1" on it and above the figure there is one hole where a peg may be put in. The board has one projection on its side which fits into a notch on the second piece of wood. The second one has a number "2" on it with two holes for pegs and with two

projections on the side. This arrangement goes throughout the set. Here again the cerebral palsied deaf child can often manipulate these quite well in spite of his physical involvement and he has a good

opportunity to learn his numbers.

It's possible to obtain numbers cut out of felt which can be placed on a flannel board or on a desk. A magnetic arithmetic board manufactured by the Archer Plastics, Inc., Box 72, New York, also gives the child the opportunity to handle numbers and place them in various places on the board. This unit has smaller numerals than has been described so far and the child can advance to this board as he improves in the coordination of his muscles. The magnetism in the numerals holds them against the steel back of this arithmetic board so that an unintentional bump by the child does not completely upset everything he has worked on. It still allows the child to move the numbers around and do problems or demonstrate counting.

Some wooden blocks 2 inches square made of 34-inch wood can be painted and lettered with a "magic marker." These are indestructable and can be moved around quite easily so that the child can form words.

Building of vocabulary is, of course, very important to the deaf child and here again the cerebral palsied child needs rather large indestructible type of materials. Some felt cutout pictures which can be put on a flannel board work very nicely to illustrate the object being presented. Pieces of cardboard with felt backs can be used to present the printed words. In this way the child can learn to asso-

ciate the printed words with the pictures.

Another object which can be made by the instructor is a board with strips of masking tape placed across it in such a way to form slots for insertion of pictures or word cards. These strips of masking tape must be folded in such a way that they will not stick to the pictures or word cards. Some dolls approximately a foot tall can be made of masonite and various items of clothing can be cut out of felt. These, too, are quite indestructible but give the child the opportunity to learn items of clothing. A jigsaw puzzle type which teaches the words boy, coat, shirt, pants, ball, bat, socks, gloves, hat, tie, sweater, and cap is available. A similar puzzle showing a girl and feminine objects is made by the same company. These are known as the Matchmate Puzzles and are available from the Novo-Education & Equipment Co., 585 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y.

Children are also taught to name and use various items of clothing by working on specially constructed items for this purpose. For example, children can be taught to lace shoes, button buttons, zip zippers, handle belts, buckles, snaps, and so forth by working with

specially constructed objects.

It is, of course, important to have the child learn to do writing even though frequently his writing is large and the letters are not well formed. Sometimes a piece of paper is held on the desk with masking tape so that the child can write without moving the paper around or even pushing it off the desk. There is now available a new plastic material similar to putty which is called Holdit. A small bit of this material can be placed under the corners of the paper and this will hold the paper in place securely. It can be removed from

the paper or the desk and reused many times. This material is available from Eberhard Faber, Inc., Crestwood, Wilkes-Barre, Pa. The children need an opportunity to work at the blackboard, but they frequently break the chalk. Some of the teachers have found it useful to wrap the chalk with masking tape. This makes the chalk easier to hold and also helps to prevent it being broken by children who press too hard or inadvertently hit the blackboard while writing. Aluminum chalk holders are also available. The chalk extends up inside the aluminum tube and is held in place by a spring cap. This allows only a small portion of the end of the chalk to protrude from the holder and will protect the chalk from breakage.

One may well ask, "Is this worthwhile? Does such a program give these children the preparation for life they really need?" With some

reservations, we feel that it does.

A boy by the name of Joe came to the institute about 8 years ago. He was about 6 years old then. He had about 70 to 80 decibels of hearing loss, could hardly walk upstairs, and could do almost nothing for himself, like eating, or dressing. He had no speech and very little ability to communicate. He was a boy severely handicapped by deafness and cerebral palsy.

Joe will leave our program at the end of this week and will go to the State school for the deaf. He needs some vocational training and as yet we have no shop facilities. He should get along quite well there. He will need some extra consideration, but we think he will be able to compete fairly well with the other deaf children of his

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The cerebral palsied deaf child can be taught language, reading, at least some speech and a method of written communication. In order to do so, it is necessary for the instructors to be thoroughly trained in knowledge of cerebral palsy and deafness and they need to use techniques and materials which are suitable for children with this particular multiple handicap.

WORKSHOP: DEAF-BLIND SUMMARY

(MR. PAUL STARKOVICH, recorder, Washington School, Vancouver)

The workshop for deaf-blind in the section multiple handicapped deaf was held June 26, 1961, at the Oregon State School for the Deaf, Salem, Oreg., during the 40th Biennial Convention of the American Instructors of the Deaf.

Of the eight schools throughout the country which administer deafblind departments, Perkins School for the Blind, Watertown, Mass., and the Washington State School for the Blind, Vancouver, Wash.,

were the two actively participating in the workshop.

Mr. Byron Berhow, superintendent of the Washington School for the Blind and discussion leader for the workshop, opened the session at 1:15 p.m., stating that the purpose of this session this biennium was to create interest and inform the general public of the ways and means of offering to all deaf-blind children the best opportunities for growth and development and to demonstrate what is being done for the 85 deaf-blind children now enrolled in school. It was also pointed out that there are approximately 300 known deaf-blind children in this country and all probably should be given this same opportunity with teachers qualified and certified by training in this particular educational field.

The first phase of the agenda was the premier showing of a film entitled "Children of the Silent Night." This film by Perkins School for the Blind, which is the teacher training center for deaf-blind and the largest of the eight deaf-blind departments in the Nation, depicts the history of educating deaf-blind persons from the first starting achievements of Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, who taught Laura Bridgeman to communicate, to the present day where new methods of testing and teaching are assisting deaf-blind people in adjusting to society in spite of defective sight and hearing.

The second phase of the session was another film entitled "A Day With Debbie." This film, in its last stages of being completed by the Washington State School for the Blind, served to present a typical day for the deaf-blind child named Debbie Curry at the Washington school.

The third phase of the program was a demonstration by Debbie Curry under the guidance of her teacher, Mrs. Ruth Richardson, in which they showed how Debbie could communicate, count, add simple figures, and read and write braille.

A question-answer and discussion period followed the demonstration but was interrupted at 2:55 p.m. to meet the 3 p.m. deadline for workshop summaries. In the summarizing report, Mr. Berhow concluded that—"In accordance with the convention theme 'Setting Our Sights for the Sixties' the education of deaf-blind persons passed many milestones during the past year in its rapid growth and development; and this opportunity to take part in a workshop of the section for multiple handicapped deaf at this convention is considered another milestone for the deaf-blind. The films introduced and shown today should continue to generate interest and foster positive public relations throughout the sixties on the subject of educating the deaf-blind."

Representing the Perkins School for the Blind were: Dr. Edward J. Waterhouse, director; Mr. Carl Davis, school psychologists; Mrs. Gertrude Stenquist, head of research for deaf-blind; Mrs. Rose Vivian, supervisor of the deaf-blind department; and Miss Nan Robins, curriculum coordinator.

Present from the Washington State School for the Blind, in addition to Mr. Berhow and Mr. Starkovich were: Mrs. Ruth Richardson, supervisor of the deaf-blind department; Mr. Robert Mealey, teacher; Debbie Curry, student of the deaf-blind department, accompanied by her grandmother, Mrs. Margarett Beckett.

Miss Annette B. Dinsmore, American Foundation for the Blind, New York (services for deaf-blind), was introduced and recognized. There were 41 persons attending the workshop.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

WORKSHOP-EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED DEAF

(Leader: Dr. Sue Warren, chief psychologist, Oregon Fairview Home, Salem) (Recorder: R. M. McAdams, North Carolina School)

Suggested discussion topics were reviewed and the meeting thrown

open for discussion.

Problems brought out revolved around the difficulty in deciding when a child should be kept in classroom and when excluded. excluded, what help is available? How can we work with parents in helping them understand the emotional disturbance? What should be done in specific cases described by workshop members? The general trend of discussion indicated the necessity of recognizing degrees of disturbance and the teacher's role in handling them. Teachers can, and do, help the child to gain a feeling of acceptance even though they cannot accept all the child's behaviors; they can help the child gain a feeling of self-worth by offering work in which the child can succeed; they can learn to recognize the need for the help of other professionals on more severely damaged personalities. (It was noted that to work with children who are extremely anxious is unlikely to bring much educational gain to the individual child and prevents the teacher from giving her help to other children.) The teacher needs to recognize her own competencies in dealing with children with mild disturbances and face the fact that she may find some children she cannot help.

There is great need for more trained professional personnel for diagnostic and therapeutic work. Some cooperative enterprise between groups may be a partial solution. Parent education is also worth more consideration; parents have not been given much help before parent-hood and may find the handicapped child hard to understand; helping them with specific problems as well as recognizing that they have a

difficult situation to face was suggested.

The great need for more knowledge about this group at all levels

was pointed out.

Several workshop participants described their own services and ways in which they sought help for emotionally disturbed children.

Workshop—Brain Injured and Aphasic Deaf—Cerebral Palsied and Deaf

(Leader: Miss Ann Mulholland, Northwestern University, Chicago) (Recorder: Mrs. Patrice Costello, Crotched Mountain School, New Hampshire)

This workshop opened with an explanation of the Barczi method and its application to the education of children with cortical deafness. (The teacher speaks selected work into child's ear many times.)

Following this, there was a discussion as to whether the incidence of brain injured and other atypical children is rising. Some believe that it is and that the percentage of such children enrolled in schools for the deaf is increasing. But since the group present could not indicate the incidence of such children enrolled in their schools, it is assumed that the number is not known. It was pointed out that whether or not there is an increase in the number and percentage of these children in the general population, there is a great deal of parent pressure on school superintendents to admit children with multiple handicaps to schools for the deaf. (Parent organizations may be headed by parents of atypical children.)

The question was next raised as to how these children are assimilated.

These examples were given:
1. Houston Day School.—When a child with apparent or true peripheral deafness enters the school, a person skilled in language disorders studies the child and his records and decides on placement to determine if he will fit into an existing group. In some cases indi-

vidual instruction is necessary.

The teacher (a trained teacher of the deaf) engages in diagnostic teaching, with the child who doesn't communicate. She tries to find out how he can be reached and helped, how he functions best. She uses varied methods to teach language. If it appears that the child is not deaf, the teacher works with him until he can cope successfully

in another setting.

2. Institute of Logopedics.—Here children with more than one handicap are often seen. It is impossible to integrate all children with multiple handicaps, so at the institute some children with different problems are kept apart from the other groups so that one or two do not hold back an entire group. They work out a program to fit the individual child's needs. Admittedly, this is difficult to accomplish in most schools for the deaf.

3. Schools for the deaf such as Arkansas School for the Deaf.— Due to pressure by parents, children with multiple handicaps are admitted. Then a program is devised for them, preferably in separate quarters, although this may not be possible at first. Segregation

of these children, if only in groups, is the preferred policy.

4. Schools for the deaf such as the New York School for the Deaf.— Brain injured, aphasoid, and other children are accepted and an attempt made to fit them into regular classes of deaf children. If they fail to achieve, they may go to a special class for a time until some of their problems are overcome, then returned to regular classes.

There was a strong plea that the deaf not be forgotten; that diagnostic personnel be aware of the special problems presented by deafness so that they recommend an appropriate educational program.

There was a lively discussion on the need for better trained teachers of the brain injured and multiple handicapped. It was believed that superintendents planning to accept these children and provide a program for them, have the responsibility of seeing that such a program be carried out by persons knowing as much as possible about the individual differences and special learning problems of these children.

(It was reemphasized that a point made in the keynote speech was: a teacher with an atypical child in her class becomes frustrated, unhappy, and definitely of low morale when the techniques she uses to educate deaf children fail with this child.) This can be reflected in her attitude toward her work, and hence affects the deaf child.

An opinion was expressed that sometimes an oral method is used with a child, and when it fails, instead of trying other oral methods, too early children are channeled into manual classes. There was disagreement on this point. It was recalled that at a recent workshop, Helmer Myklebust had stated: If the child is a failure at 10, change your methods.

MONDAY, JUNE 26, 1961

CIVILIAN DEFENSE

4-5 p.m.

Play Shed.—General Convention Invited

Section Leaders-

Mrs. Margaret L. Hodges, Consultant on Defense Activities.

Mr. Thomas LePine, Specialist, Social Administration. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C. Briefing—"National Civil Emergency Preparedness" Eugene J. Sleevi, Director, Briefing Division, Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, Operational Headquarters, Battle Creek, Mich.

Briefing and demonstration—"Near Home Warning System" Robert E. Knieriem, Warning Officer, Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, Region VIII,

Everett, Wash.

Recorder: Albert B. Davis. Interpreter: Lloyd Graunke.

OPENING REMARKS

(PAUL C. HOWARD, Chief, Division of State Program Development, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Washington, D.C.)

Ladies and gentlemen, I am pleased for the opportunity to be with you today. I have been in the Federal Government for over 20 years, the greater part of which has been with what is now the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. And, during the past several years spent in the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, I have worked closely with many public, private, and professional groups interested in rehabilitation of various disability groups. This is my first time, however, to attend a conference concerned with the problems of the deaf, and I am looking forward to attending some of your other sessions here and to meeting as many of you as possible. I have much respect for my colleague and yours, Dr. Boyce Williams, and do commend him and each of you for the fine work you are doing.

You may be wondering why I, as Chief of an OVR division which is concerned with development and improvement of State rehabilitation programs, am here chairing a "civil defense" program. The reason, very simply, is that we in OVR, like most agencies of our Federal Government, have responsibilities for emergency planning as a part

of our normal day-to-day activities.

Undoubtedly, many of you read the extraordinary "State of the Union" message which President Kennedy delivered to the Congress on May 25. In that address the President stated that civil defense is one major element of our national security and outlined his program for greatly strengthening it. He also emphasized the essentiality of emergency planning on the part of the various Federal departments and agencies. The emergency mission of OVR is to develop national plans for the rehabilitation of disabled survivors of an enemy attack upon our country in order that they may be employed in the national recovery effort as quickly as possible. We have

started, and expect to do a great deal more, in providing leadership and guidance and in working with State vocational rehabilitation agencies in developing and implementing their plans for emergency rehabilitation operations at the State and community level. Along with our overall mission, we feel a responsibility for assisting, to the extent possible for the national level, in assuring the preparedness of presently disabled individuals to care for themselves if it should be necessary during the first few weeks following an attack.

We are most fortunate to have with us here some specialists from the Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization. They are going to speak to you today on the nature of the threat our Nation faces in these days of great international tension; what our governments at all levels, Federal, State, and local, have done and are doing about it; and what each citizen of our country must do to increase the possibility of his surviving this terrible thing each of us hopes will never happen—but

for which we must be prepared.

I would like to ask that each of you during our presentations this afternoon be thinking of how this information applies to you personally. For example, you will hear reference made to various types of shelters. Do you personally feel the need for a shelter of some type? If so, what kind? I think you'll be told you should have a 2-week supply of food in your house. Do you have such a reserve which would give the basic nutritional diet to each member of your family for that long? I would appreciate your making notes of any such items—because tomorrow we are going to ask for your help in letting us know what you need in the way of information, training, special devices, etc., before you can proceed with your own individual survival preparedness. And, just as important, what is needed in the way of training aids before this survival instruction can be passed on to other deaf individuals.

I'll speak of our tomorrow's meeting again later, but now I would like to introduce the other people here on the platform with me: Mr. Eugene Sleevi, Director, Briefing Division, Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, Operational Headquarters, Battle Creek, Mich.; Mr. Robert Knieriem, warning officer, Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, region VIII, Everett, Wash.; Mr. Roger Falberg, executive secretary, Wichita Social Services for the Deaf, Wichita, Kans.; Mr. Thomas LePine, rehabilitation adviser for the deaf and the hard of hearing, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Washington, D.C.

Mr. Sleevi will now present a briefing on national civil emergency

preparedness. Mr. Sleevi.

The following briefing was presented with the aid of slides.

NATIONAL CIVIL EMERGENCY PREPAREDNESS

(Eugene J. Sleevi, Director, Briefing Division, Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, Battle Creek, Mich.)

In this briefing we will discuss from a national standpoint our present civil emergency preparedness, and the means we are taking to improve it.

To provide a common background for this discussion, let's review

the nature of the threat.

The never-changing Communist objective is world domination. The powerful Soviet military machine gives substance to this goal.

The Red Army has rockets and missiles designed to carry nuclear

warheads as standard weapons.

The Red Navy's submarine fleet is the largest in the world with estimates as high as 500. Soviet long-range submarines—like this one—make up about half the undersea fleet.

Some can faunch supersonic guided missiles, carrying nuclear war-

heads.

The Red Air Force includes more than 1,000 intercontinental bombers. Some of them, like this Bison, can carry nuclear weapons to any target in this country.

The Soviets also have thousands of light jet bombers.

The enemy could penetrate our defenses and inflict extensive dam-

age on the United States.

Our warning network could be penetrated by enemy attack. Some of our piloted interceptors would have limited combat capabilities against Soviet bombers at very low and very high altitudes.

Enemy pilots could launch supersonic missiles from points beyond

the range of our Nike defenses.

In the event of attack by a large force of piloted bombers, many target areas today could receive as much as 3 hours warning time.

But, as 15,000-mile-an-hour ICBM's assume the strategic role of piloted bombers, tactical warning will be reduced to 30 minutes or less.

Besides operational ICBM's, there will be the increase of the Soviet's

nuclear weapons stockpile.

Though a long-range missile cannot carry as large a nuclear device as an intercontinental piloted bomber, the nuclear warhead of a missile could incinerate a large city in one blow.

This is Nagasaki after the explosion of one 20-kiloton bomb. Today's

weapons are as much as 1,000 times more powerful.

A nuclear assault today against the 50 most important metropolitan areas of the United States would bring 50 percent of our population and 75 percent of our industry under direct attack.

Eighty-five percent of our industry and all but 7 of our 50 largest

cities are within range of submarine-launched guided missiles.

A nationwide attack could substantially damage our large cities and our industries.

Casualties from the blast, heat, and radiation effects of such an at-

tack on the United States could range into the millions.

Radiation intensities within the area of the bombs' direct effects would temporarily reach levels far above human tolerance for exposed individuals * * * within hours more than 70 percent of the land area of the entire country could be covered by radioactive fallout of varying intensities, denying some of this land to productive use for some time.

Our military forces, the Strategic Air Command, the North American Air Defense Command, missile-firing submarines, aircraft carriers, missile bases, all are designed to meet this threat. But, as our top leaders agree, total preparedness also requires reliable and responsible home defense.

It is the state of readiness of our home defense—which we also call civil emergency preparedness—that we shall discuss in this briefing. Should an attack occur today, our operations plan, facilities, and

personnel are closely tied into the distant early warning system.

Members of our staff are stationed at air defense headquarters and the other major military warning centers, and are part of the operations of those headquarters on a 24-hour basis.

Through the national warning system (called nawas) we could provide warning and warning intelligence immediately to every

State in the Union.

Within 15 seconds after an attack is detected, attack warning information can be transmitted to strategic locations known as warning points; 447 of these warning points will be in operation this year. Further dissemination of warning is made through State and local

systems.

A command communications network (called nacom) is in operation. It connects the national emergency location near Washington with operational headquarters at Battle Creek and with our eight regional offices and with the State governments. This system can bypass damaged areas if necessary. It is backed up by radio to all OCDM regional offices and is being extended to the States.

Conelrad, invoked by the Commander of North American Air Defense, will be used as another means to alert the public. It is also the principal means of keeping the population informed on emergency developments. Under conelrad, all stations suspend broadcasting and, in a few minutes, participating AM radio stations return to the air. About 1,300 or roughly one-third, of all US. stations will broadcast vital information and instructions on either of the conelrad frequencies, 640 or 1240 kilocycles.

The Federal agencies at the seat of government are prepared to move to relocation sites near Washington as soon as warning is received.

These same agencies have also selected more than 300 relocation sites throughout the country for their staffs—all outside primary target areas.

OCDM's staff operations are dispersed to facilities at Battle Creek,

Mich.

Our regional headquarters, such as region 1 at Harvard, Mass., shown here, have dispersed to facilities away from target areas. Permanent underground sites are planned for the regional offices. The first of these is being constructed at region 5 headquarters in Denton, Tex.

Each region has plans to expand in an emergency—drawing heavily from the regional offices of other Federal agencies, industries, col-

leges, universities, and other private groups.

Control centers like this one with its 26-inch concrete roof, located in a hillside near Portland, Oreg., are being built in various parts of the country. This center can house 300 people for 2 weeks. It has its own electric and sanitation systems, as well as food and water supply.

The Federal Government has matched funds with the States and cities to assist them in building control centers like this one in Dupage County, Ill., which serves the Chicago area. It can withstand a blast pressure over and above existing atmospheric pressure of 30 pounds per square inch, has its own water and power supply and can house 60 people for 2 weeks.

By comparison, an overpressure of 3 pounds per square inch will

destroy most brick or wood frame houses.

Today there are 70 State control or alternate control centers in the United States and close to 1,800 below the State level. These range

from fairly adequate ones, like this one for Detroit, to makeshift cen-

ters which will serve until better ones can be built.

Four times each day the Weather Bureau provides fallout forecasts throughout the Nation. These are based on observations of wind direction and speed. This service is distributed in practical, usable form to about 1,500 Federal, State, and local offices.

We have purchased more than 1 million radiological instruments; 90 percent of them are being distributed to State and local governmental agencies and schools for training and emergency use. The re-

maining 10 percent are held in reserve.

More than 120,000 monitors have been trained in the techniques of measuring radiation dose rates and in reporting procedures. In addition, 16,000 radiological defense officers and monitoring instructors have been trained.

Radiological equipment is being used by 15,000 high school science departments in their courses. Should an attack come, these instruments are available to civil defense units for their use in monitoring.

We have created a Federal fixed station monitoring network using the existing facilities and personnel of the other Federal agencies. This gives us nearly 2,800 Federal monitoring points in continuous operation today. State and local governments have approximately 20,000 stations in operation.

Our training capability in all areas of civil preparedness is increas-

We maintain a staff college and a chemical, biological, and radiological defense school in Battle Creek as well as Federal instructor training centers at Manhattan Beach, N.Y., and at Alameda, Calif. More than 25,000 leaders have been instructed in the staff college, and another 7,000 instructors have attended the training centers. In addition, a civil defense adult education program is underway in seven States, and seven more States are scheduled to be added during 1961.

In addition to these there are 51 State and local training facilities located throughout the United States. Twenty-two of these are equipped to train people in many of the skills essential in war-caused or natural disasters, like this one at Ann Arbor, Mich., which includes

a fire control and rescue training tower.

The other 29 centers specialize in rescue training. OCDM has matched funds with the States and local communities to help establish many of these centers.

The Federal Government maintains many stockpiles to support civil preparedness and mobilization. These include strategic and

critical materials, civil defense items, and machine tools.

Commodity Credit Corporation food supplies, acquired under pricesupport programs and stored largely in commercial stockpiles, also would be available for use in an emergency. Backup for Federal storage is provided by considerable stocks of food in commercial inventories—not to mention the shelves and pantries of millions of homes.

Supplies of strategic and critical materials meeting stockpile specifications have an original value of \$8 billion. The strategic stockpile consists of 77 materials. Crude rubber is shown here. These materials, mostly minerals and metals necessary for defense production, are stockpiled in more than 200 dispersed locations.

We have stored \$200 million worth of medical and engineering

items that would be in critical short supply.

These are in 42 warehouses throughout the country, which are of 3 types; small capacity, placed on a calculated risk basis, in or near principal cities; larger ones located away from likely target areas; and depot-type warehouse at still greater distances from probable targets.

This underground storage location at Neosho, Mo., is a former limestone mine. It has the available capacity for 8,000 tons of medical supplies. Equipment has been installed to provide controlled dehu-

midified storage.

These warehouses contain over 160,000 tons of medical supplies—such as the emergency hospital spread out here—it contains everything from bandages and X-ray machines to equipment for three operating rooms—everything needed to convert any suitable building

into a 200-bed emergency hospital.

We have placed more than 1,500 of these emergency hospitals in small towns, town halls, schools, churches, armories—locations that could be converted to hospital use in an emergency. These, plus the 93 units on loan to the States for training purposes and those units in Federal warehouses give us a total of 1,932 emergency hospitals purchased to date. The contemplated purchase of 1,000 more would give an added capability of 200,000 beds.

We have stockpiled throughout the Nation about 5 million doses of

atropine, the lifesaving drug against nerve gas.

There are two protective masks in OCDM warehouses for CD operational personnel—some 32,000 of the organizational masks and about 50,000 of the protective masks, both shown here. These masks are available to State CD personnel for demonstration and familiarization purposes.

Five thousand chemical warfare detection kits are also being distributed to the States for familiarization purposes. To perfect rapid identification methods for biological warfare agents, we are conducting research through the Department of Health, Education, and

Welfare.

In addition to the Federal Government's stockpiling efforts, the manufacturers of medical supplies have agreed to store some of our material in bulk on their premises. The Lederle Laboratories located at Pearl River, N.Y., have stocked vaccines and other medicines. Millions of dollars worth of medical supplies are located in similar manufacturers' sites. These stores include 59 million doses of biologic materials such as vaccines, sera, and antitoxins. They would be used to control epidemics or in some aspect of biological warfare defense. The management of the medical supply stockpile is now the re-

sponsibility of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

There are 45 engineering stockpiles, like this one, strategically located throughout the country. Each contains 10 miles of 8-inch pipe, pumps, generators, water purifiers, and water tanks. This equip-

ment also is used in natural disaster relief.

States and local communities have improved their readiness through the purchase of such items as these rescue trucks under the matching funds program. By matching more than \$142 million, States and local communities throughout the country have also purchased engineering equipment, radiological defense items, and medical and communications equipment. New York State alone has purchased 200 emergency hospitals under this program.

The readiness of many communities has been increased with Federal surplus property which includes a wide range of items. All States and Puerto Rico have participated in the program and so far have received over \$190 million worth of generators, motor vehicles, trailers, rescue and firefighting equipment, crash trucks, communica-

tions equipment, and numerous other items.

OCDM places a great deal of emphasis on activities at the regional level. The country might be so segmented after a major attack that it would be some time before Central Government could be resumed. Consequently, we have built up the readiness of our States as well as Puerto Rico and the District of Columbia through survival plans handtailored to meet their specific needs.

All 50 States, shown here in the 8 OCDM regions, have now completed plans, and 240 area plans have been completed within the States. In addition, some planning and organization has been de-

veloped in 2,500 local political subdivisions.

Based on the use of total State, area, and local resources these plans spell out what is expected of each element of government as well as of each citizen. This readiness will aid the survival of a State until help can come from its neighbors or from the Federal Government.

We believe an attack would create isolation of governments and groups of people for extended periods of time. This isolation, coupled with the overwhelming magnitude of the disaster, means that problems of survival must be solved at the lowest possible level.

Individuals and families must be prepared to exist on personal stocks of survival items in homes and shelter areas for 2 weeks following attack. States, cities and counties should be prepared to sustain their populations for at least 4 weeks.

The Federal Government will help States and localities as soon as possible after meeting military and other essential Federal require-

ments

To encourage family and community preparedness, Congress has appropriated funds for a prototype shelter program. OCDM is constructing more than 400 prototype shelters throughout the country to provide information and guidance to the public, based on recognition of the fact that fallout shelters offer the best single non-military defense measure for the protection of the greatest number of people. These are dual-purpose shelters which will have practical peacetime uses, as well as being a form of insurance in time of disaster.

Private industry has shown considerable interest in the design and

construction of family fallout shelters.

A special citation is now being given to families who acquire fallout shelters and fulfill the readiness requirements recommended by OCDM.

A home preparedness program which was recently launched on a nationwide scale, is being conducted by the State civil defense chair-

men of national women's groups.

Farm organizations are supporting a national rural program which is bringing vital information to the Nation's farm population. Over 60 percent of the Nation's counties are participating in the program, which has recently been assigned to the Department of Agriculture for full implementation.

These few examples illustrate the present OCDM program emphasis, which is directed toward three basic objectives: First, to inform the public of modern weapons effects and how to protect themselves.

Every citizen must know and take action upon five fundamentals:

Warning signals and what they mean.

Community emergency plan.

Protection by shelter.
First aid and home preparedness.

Conelrad, 640 or 1240 on radio for official information and direction.

Second, to have governments at all levels take steps now to assure their ability to function after an attack; and third, to build civil

preparedness into all elements of government.

We have an active program for States and their political subdivisions which will improve their chances to continue to serve after an attack. It includes: establishing lines of succession, preserving records, designating or preparing alternate locations, and planning for maximum use of all their personnel and resources.

This program has been very successful. Continuity of Government legislation has been approved in 38 States. Its enactment authorizes localities to provide continuity of their own leadership and the capa-

bility to operate in an emergency.

Two legislative measures have been prepared to assist the States in developing a program for the preservation of records needed for emergency Government operation and the protection of the rights and interests of citizens and governments. Both measures are submitted to the States for consideration through the Council of State Governments.

All States and most of the largest cities have provided alternate sites for the emergency operation of their governments. Securing them against nuclear attack involves a budgetary problem, but the Federal Government will provide matching funds for this purpose which are equal to one-half of the cost of construction. To date 51 State and local sites are either hardened against nuclear attack or are in the process of being hardened.

Civil emergency preparedness hinges greatly on the active participation of all departments and agencies of the Federal Government.

Each department must know its emergency assignment in order to develop a state of readiness through current training and organization.

Building civil defense and defense mobilization into all elements of government has been accomplished to a great extent in the Federal establishment. Each agency, currently subject to policy direction and central program control by OCDM, is planning for maximum use of its personnel and preparing to provide the basic needs for survival such as food, water, housing, health services, power, fuel, and other essential commodities.

Plans of each agency, as completed, become parts of the overall national plan and are now reflected in the annexes. Programs are designed to develop a state of readiness covering all conditions of a national emergency, including attack on the United States.

For example, the food program is a responsibility of the Department of Agriculture. USDA will be assisted by the Food and Drug Administration of the Department of Health, Education, and Wel-

fare, the Fish and Wildlife Service of Interior and other appro-

priate agencies.

Shifts in population and radiological contamination will create serious problems in water supply. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has assumed leadership; the Department of Agriculture, Housing and Home Finance, Interior, as well as the Corps of Engineers also assist in this area.

The task of arranging for emergency housing has been assigned

to the Housing and Home Finance Agency.

Power and fuel support has been assigned to the Department of the Interior, which will be assisted by the Federal Power Commission.

The manpower supply role has been given to the Department of Labor. Close coordination will be required with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Selective Service System, and the Civil Service Commission, where Federal employees are concerned.

Federal support for the Nation's health and medical care programs has been assigned to the Public Health Service. Planning for the entire welfare program has been assigned to the Department of

Health, Education, and Welfare.

Transportation will be coordinated by an emergency agency which will include portions of several agencies which are now preparing for their emergency roles. These agencies include the Department of Commerce, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the Department of the Interior, the Civil Aeronautics Board and the Federal Aviation Agency.

These are a few examples. There are many other agencies and many more fields of endeavor involved in the full utilization of exist-

ing government.

OCDM continues to concentrate on certain physical aspects of the Nation's preparedness which are not specifically within the respon-

sibilities of any other single agency.

To increase our attack warning capability 53 more warning points have been requested. This would bring the total to 500. Our ultimate goal is simultaneous warning of attack, not only to every part of the country, but to all of our people as well.

Radio backup, for use in case landlines are disrupted, is provided for our command communications, from emergency headquarters to

the regions, and by 1962 to the States.

Plans call for at least one fixed Federal monitoring station in each county of the United States. The overall plan is to have about 103,000 monitoring stations at existing Government facilities. Monitoring points will include fire, police, welfare, health, highway patrol, conservation, agriculture, and forestry offices, as well as airports, military bases, and weather observatories. This network is scheduled to be completed by late 1963.

We are also encouraging the development of aerial and surface

mobile monitoring.

Our state of preparedness must constantly be improved and strengthened. Achievement of complete civil emergency preparedness depends upon the coordinated effort of Government and industry supported by a well-informed and well-prepared public. Our objective is a sound and effective readiness, one which is an insurance for the civilian population.

As President Kennedy has stated:

It is an insurance we trust will never be needed—but insurance which we could never forgive ourselves for foregoing in the event of catastrophe.

BRIEFING ON THE NEAR SYSTEM

(ROBERT E. KNIERIEM, warning officer, Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, Everett, Wash.)

I am going to describe to you, and demonstrate briefly for you, a unique attack alarm signaling system which we call NEAR. The Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization has developed and tested this system which is capable of bringing a warning signal into every home in the United States that is served by electric power.

First, I would like to tell you a bit about the research which pro-

duced the NEAR system.

Paul Revere was able to awaken enough of his countrymen by the simple process of shouting from his horse to rally against the British quite effectively. In our modern homes, offices, and factories, we often cannot even hear a siren producing thousands of times as much noise. And, for many of us, no reasonable amount of sound alone will awaken us.

For years, we in the business of national civil emergency preparedness have looked for an existing method of bringing warning directly into homes. Not finding one ready made, we began a systematic re-

search effort in 1952 to develop a practical method.

To illustrate the extent of our research: We have investigated the possibilities of using aerial bombs and flares, sending pulses through waterpipes and gaslines, shaking the houses with an underground blast, and so forth.

We always came back, however, to the three methods which seemed most promising: using telephone systems, radio, or electric-

power systems to get the warning into the home.

Each one of these possibilities was carefully investigated.

In 1952, funds were requested for a research program to evaluate the possibilities of telephone, radio, and powerline as a medium for public warning. Three years later, funds were approved and the work started. Contracts were let with Armour Research Foundation, International Business Machines, Allis-Chalmers, and Philo for these

investigations.

We investigated the possibilities of telephones which had semed to be a natural warning means, already existing. Yet only about 74 percent of the people have telephones. Even more troublesome, a telephone exchange can only connect to about 20 percent of its subscribers at any one time. The two homes shown here could possibly be warned, but the other lines shown going out of the telephone company building would get no warning until later switching was done. We are told by engineers of the American Telephone & Telegraph Co. that telephone warning would be extremely expensive.

A warning attachment for a radio also seemed to be a logical possibility. But we found that if it were to be reliable and stand by day after day, year after year, without false alarms, it too would be prohibitively expensive. Also, so many operational difficulties exist with radio that we were unable to find an inexpensive yet reliable radio

warning device.

A powerline warning system still seemed to have the best potential. It could cover about 95 percent of all of our people—much better than telephone or radio. It would be reliable, because there would be no radio static or interference. Because power systems are becoming more and more interconnected, power failures are less likely. Powerlines had been used already to carry a warning system, and several commercial signal systems were available here and abroad.

It is logical to ask: If such systems were already available, what were we worrying about? Why develop something new? The answer is a familiar one: The existing systems were all too expensive for

widespread use as a public alarm system.

While investigating a warning system used in Stuttgart, Germany, during World War II, one of our contractors, the Midwest Research Institute of Kansas City, Mo., conceived and developed the system we now call the national emergency alarm repeater system. The initials of which spell NEAR.

There are several unique features about NEAR: it is simple. There are no rotating machines or electronic amplifiers. Those of you who enjoy an occasional circuit diagram will see that essentially the signal generator is simply a transformer and a rectifier. One of these

two connections would be used: either series or shunt.

The NEAR system has a broad area coverage. From two installations in Michigan, we can send a signal which could be received in the homes of 1½ million people if receivers were in their homes. The alarm receivers are of a relatively inexpensive design. We expect an ordinary alarm receiver in mass production will sell for about \$10.

The first installation was made at the laboratory in Kansas City,

Mo.

The three pink cans are the transformers used as signal generators. Going to one of the full-scale installations in Michigan is quite a jump in size.

In the Grand Rapids installation, the three transformers are over

twice as high as a man.

Remember, though, that this is a full-size installation which, together with a similar installation in Battle Creek, covers over onethird of the Lower Peninsula of Michigan with a signal in every home.

That is a brief history and description of NEAR. At the present time the implementation has not been begun around the country, so no one can yet buy a receiver. The future program is presently

under consideration by the Federal Government.

I have here a demonstration alarm receiver for your inspection. Because there is no NEAR system generator in this area, this receiver has been rigged so that I can cause it to sound off without the need for a signal over the powerline. If an actual NEAR generator were installed on the power system in the vicinity of Salem, you could plug a receiver into any outlet just as you would a night light, and the generator would send the NEAR signal to the receiver and to every outlet in the city. Since there is no generator here, I throw this switch to sound this buzzer. All this receiver does is buzz.

Now let us imagine that our defense forces have detected an attack on this country and have passed the alarm to our OCDM Federal warning officers. Immediately this alarm would be sent out simultaneously over Nawas, the national warning system, as described by Mr. Sleevi. If NEAR transformer-generators were installed throughout the country, a system of control circuits to these NEAR generators would now be actuated. In each home across the country which has one of these little boxes installed in a wall outlet, the family would hear:

(Operate NEAR receiver.)

Could we have a show of hands for those of you who heard the NEAR receiver?

You understand, I am sure, that there is actually no NEAR generator here in Salem. For this demonstration, I simply operate this switch to sound the buzzer.

You notice that all this receiver does is buzz, and that is really why

I am here talking to you this afternoon.

Our research people in Battle Creek have been talking to members of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation in Washington, on the proposition of producing a relatively simple NEAR alarm device which would warn the deaf and hard-of-hearing of an attack. In particular, we need to know what stimulus or stimuli to use, and how much of these stimuli would be required.

At this point we come to you for guidance. We don't know how best to awaken a deaf person. We suspect that lights, vibration of a

bed, even an odor could waken people but we just don't know.

If you feel that there is a need for a warning device particularly designed for the deaf and hard-of-hearing, costing somewhat more than the simple buzzing NEAR receiver, we propose that one be designed, provided that the necessary funds can be obtained. Your assistance in evaluating this problem is earnestly solicited. Among other things, we need to know how to find what information may already exist, and who could work with us on the project.

We shall appreciate it if you will please give some thought to this problem, then come to the session tomorrow and give us your sugges-

tions. Thank you.

Mr. Howard. Thank you, Mr. Knieriem. When I mentioned the interest in warning of the Wichita Social Services for the Deaf, I should have added that we were pleased to read in the spring 1961 bulletin of the Utah Association for the Deaf, that a civil defense committee of that association had been appointed. And in an article entitled, "Civil Defense Preparedness a Necessity," they state a primary concern: "How shall we receive warning signals?" I am sure that other deaf groups across the country must be equally concerned.

This concludes our official program for today. As I mentioned earlier, Mr. Falberg will be speaking during our session tomorrow and Mr. LePine, who is associated with Mr. Williams in OVR and who, I am sure, many of you know; and Dr. Spaeth, who has spent many years in the development of civil defense training programs and in directing and actual training, will be with us tomorrow, as well as

Mr. Sleevi and Mr. Knieriem.

Since that meeting will be primarily a discussion session, we must necessarily limit its size. However, we are soliciting the attendance of just as many as possible who are interested in pursuing with us the needs of the deaf for civil defense instruction and information. We particularly want your suggestions for stimuli for warning device,

and any information you may have regarding research data which may already be available as to the effectiveness of various stimuli. Perhaps some of you also could suggest commercial products already on the market which might be used in connection with a NEAR receiver for this purpose.

If you are interested in attending our session tomorrow please contact Mr. LePine after this program. Thank you for your time and

attentiveness.

MONDAY EVENING, JUNE 26, 1961

6:30 p.m.

LITTLE PAPER FAMILY "GRIDIRON" DINNER

(Open to the Public) Marion Hotel, 200 Commercial, SE. Chairman: Dr. Powrie V. Doctor, editor, American Annals of the Deaf.

Invocation.

Welcome: Olaf Tollefson, editor, Oregon Outlook.

Song: "It's A-Me, O Lord," The Quartet.

Presentation of the Edward Allen Fay award to Dr. George M. Mc-Clure.

William J. McClure, president, the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

Talk: "The History of the L.P.F.," Dr. George M. McClure, editor emeritus, The Kentucky Standard.

Song: "Ol' Black Joe," The Quartet.

Talk: "A tribute to Dr. George M. McClure," W. T. Griffing, editor, The Deaf Oklahoman.

Pantomine: Bernard Bragg, California School, Berkeley.

Song: "Li'l Liza Jane," The Quartet.

Talk: "Book Publishers and Education of the Deaf," Dr. Powrie V. Doctor, editor, American Annals of the Deaf.

Song: "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot," The Quartet.

THE MUSIC DEPARTMENT

Conductors: Leonard M. Elstad, president, Gallaudet College; W. Lloyd Graunke, superintendent, Tennessee School.

BARBERSHOP QUARTET

Alto: Lloyd A. Ambrosen, superintendent, Maryland School for the Deaf.

Baritone: Ben E. Hoffmeyer, superintendent, North Carolina School.

Bass: Kenneth F. Huff, superintendent, Wisconsin School for the Deaf.

Soprano: Stanley D. Roth, superintendent, Kansas School for the Deaf.

Pianist: Don E. Kennedy, assistant superintendent, Ontario School. Interpreters: Lloyd Ambrosen, Kenneth Huff, Ben Hoffmeyer, Stanley D. Roth.

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PRESENTATION OF EDWARD ALLEN FAY AWARD TO DR. GEORGE M. McCLURE

(WILLIAM J. MCCLURE, president, Conference of Executives)

I am one of the few persons I know who from early boyhood always knew what he intended to do as an adult. I can never remember the time that I did not intend to become a teacher of the deaf. Naturally, the influences of family are strong in all of us. However, I feel it was the influence and example of my grandfather, Dr. George M. McClure, Sr., which swayed me more than any other. The pleasure he took in his work, his poise, his knowledge, and his dignity all made a tremendous impact on my early years—an impact which has grown greater through the years as I have been better able to see the breadth of his knowledge, his good judgment, and the influence he has had on generations of students. I scarcely ever go to a meeting where there are deaf people present when one or more do not come up to me and identify themselves as former students of Dr. McClure's in the Kentucky school.

When Dr. Doctor proposed the name of Dr. George M. McClure as the 1961 recipient of the Edward Allen Fay Award and the Annals committee concurred, I could think of no more worthy recipient.

As president of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, I consider it a great honor and a rare privilege as his grandson to present to Dr. George M. McClure, editor emeritus of the Kentucky Standard, a former president of the little paper family and a writer and scholar par excellence this award from the Conference of Executives. With his present responsibility for the page "Among My Books" in the Kentucky Standard, Dr. McClure has been contributing regularly to the literature of our profession for more than 80 years.

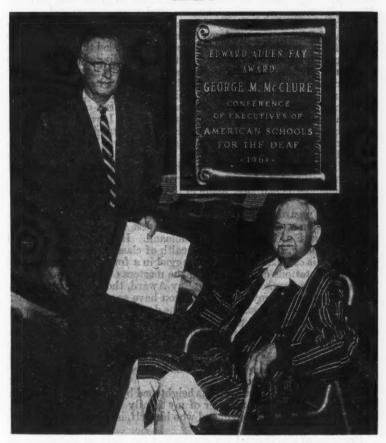
As you know, Dr. McClure had expected to be with us this evening. Only an unfortunate fall in the dark in late April robbed him of this pleasure. He had still expected to be with us until late in May when a temporary setback made this impossible. He did have his paper nearing completion and only 2 or 3 weeks ago he asked me to bring it to the meeting so that it could be read. Later in the summer he hopes to make a few additions and changes so that it can be printed exactly as he would have it. (Dr. McClure told me to be sure and tell his colleagues this was a hope—not a promise.)

As I was leaving his hospital room grandfather asked me to tell "the boys" that he had picked up his pencil to write of the deeds and misdeeds of the oldtimers, but, like an old soldier, he had temporarily faded away—just a few moments too soon.

faded away—just a few moments too soon.

He also added that he had kept a jealous eye on some of the editors of the little paper family so that he could show them up at this meeting. However, there are two or three, like Dr. Powrie Doctor and Dr. E. B. Boatner, who are so clever and so skillful, that he has never even tried to "get the goods on them." He has envied Ted Griffing, who has been able to sit out there in Oklahoma and keep an eye on the whole profession. The "old stoker" is a past master at keeping his fellow editors—and superintendents—in line, always being sure their hatbands do not become too tight.

FIGURE 1



Dr. George M. McClure, Sr., 100, editor emeritus, the Kentucky Standard, receives Edward Allen Fay Award from Dr. William J. McClure, president, Conference of Executives

THE HISTORY OF LPF

(Dr. George M. McClure, editor emeritus, "The Kentucky Standard")
(Read by Dr. Powrie V. Doctor)

Members of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, brethren of the Quill, and visiting friends; it is indeed a pleasure to me after so many years, to take my old place at the banquet table where gathered my associates of the long ago, and to receive such a friendly welcome from those who have taken their places. The workers of my generation thought they were accomplishing good results, but the world grows greater as it goes and I doubt not that you are accomplishing better, for the tree that ceases to grow soon perishes. Men and women come and go, but the good work goes on and on.

When the leaders of the Conference of Executives and of the Convention of Instructors sat down together to consider a name for the award for service, it was a happy inspiration that led them to call it in honor of Dr. Edward Allan Fay. It was my privilege to know him well—a ripe scholar, an outstanding educator, and a gentleman "to the manner born." With talents of the highest order, he was yet modest to a fault; he never strove to appropriate the chief seat, but his associates recognized that where Dr. Fay sat was the head of the table.

My acquaintance with Dr. Fay began badly. I was young and no doubt conceited. As editor of the Kentucky Standard, I criticized the Annals sharply. Years later, when my hair was beginning to turn gray, I wrote Dr. Fay apologizing for unjust criticism and got a beautiful letter in reply. Dr. Fay had never cherished resentment. He was always glad of constructive criticism. He implied that some of the changes he had later made in the Annals were the result of my suggestions.

I always regarded Dr. Fay as probably the most scholarly man in the profession and certainly the most modest considering his ability and the wealth of learning at his command. His style was beautiful in its simplicity, though he had a wealth of classical and modern languages at his command, he never dragged in a foreign word or phrase nor an ostentatious quotation from the masters of literature.

I am deeply appreciative of the Fay Award, though I fear you are honoring me above my merit when you have so many distinguished educators to choose from. Teaching the deaf is a dedicated profession that has little appeal to the self-seeker or the individual chiefly concerned with the pecuniary reward he can get out of life. The teachers of the deaf are not of the type that stop to inquire, "Is it so nominated in the bond?" when sacrifices are called for. I am sure the award will never lack for deserving recipients who have rendered service "beyond the requirement of duty."

My appreciation of the award is heightened by the fact that it comes to me at the hands of a member of my family who took my place in the profession when I retired, and who himself, is the son of a son who was very dear to me.

Brethren of the Quill, I am gratified at the sight of something tonight that I never saw in the old days. I find the distinguished editor of the Annals partaking of the bread and salt with us.

Just here is a bit of history for you. I happened to be president of the LPF Editorial Association at the centennial meeting at Hartford, in 1917, and in preparing the program I conceived the idea of inviting Dr. Fay to join us and to present a paper. He accepted, and I thought I had a wonderful surprise for the brethren, but Dr. Fay's health was poor that summer and his physician ordered him to cut out every possible activity. So he wrote to me, withdrawing his acceptance, but expressing keen regret that he would not have the pleasure of joining us at our banquet.

Though Dr. Fay could not join us on that previous occasion, we are honored tonight to have a worthy successor of his sit down with us and partake of our salt. A. B. Guthrie in his novel, "The Way West," tells of a cracker family—"poor white trash" to their Negro neighbors—one of the members of which married a gentleman of some social

pretentions. Mr. Guthrie does not say whether the gentleman was proud of his poor kin, but he does say that they were "tickled to join up with a family that kept their nose wiped." I do not know whether the editor of the Annals is proud to join up with the editors of the school papers, but they certainly are proud to join up with the editor of one of the oldest and most highly regarded educational magazines in this country. It is said that when Solomon was building that wonderful temple in Jerusalem he ever so often invited his workmen, from the humblest to the highest, to join him at banquets. Laying aside his royal robe, he sat down with them in democratic equality, saying: "We be fellow workmen, no more, no less." Knowing the editor of the Annals as I do I feel sure that his presence here tonight means that he regards himself as a "fellow workman" with the LPF editors in the great cause of the education of the deaf.

My first convention was on the shores of the Atlantic—at the New York school (Fanwood), with Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet as host, and that accomplished scholar, Dr. Warring Wilkinson of California as president. It was a notable convention with many of the great names of the profession in attendance—Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet, suave, courteous, at the height of his great powers; Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, handsome, brilliant, aggressive; Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, one of the truly strong men of the profession; that breezy westerner, Dr.

Philip G. Gillett.

I remember yet his opening remarks—"Deafness, once a calamity has become through education little more than a serious inconvenience"—and as he had to stop to brush his bald pate he added—"something like baldness in fly time." That gracious New England gentlewoman, Dr. Caroline Yale, head of the Clarke School, who never engaged in controversies over methods but let her work speak for itself. It was at this convention that the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf was organized. I had my doubts of the wisdom of splitting the educators of the deaf into two sections, but I dutifully applauded the announcement of the endowment of the new association by Dr. Bell's generous gift.

Of all that notable group, I know of but one person still living aside

Of all that notable group, I know of but one person still living aside from myself. One day, glancing at a group of young girls sporting on the lawn, I noticed a slender, attractive young girl with long curls, who was pointed out to me as the daughter of our host. She grew up to become the accomplished, beloved, Dr. Elizabeth Peet, professor

of French and dean of women at Gallaudet, now retired.

It seems fitting to me that my last convention should be on the shores of that great ocean, the Pacific. At the time of my first convention, the Oregon school was small and struggling, none too well supported. But the people of the State have since taken it to their hearts and it is now one of the outstanding schools of the Nation, challenging the older ones for professional leadership. I have attended many such gatherings in my day, but nowhere have I found the welcome warmer, or the hospitality more gracious. I am sure the guests at the convention will turn homeward with happy memories of their stay in the great young State where rolls the Oregon.

The Little Paper Family Editorial Association was organized in Chicago in 1893. That was the year of the great world fair; the Convention of Instructors of the Deaf met there the same summer, and so many of the editors expressed an intention of attending that a move-

ment was started to organize the Little Paper Family Association. The adult deaf of Chicago maintained attractive clubrooms, and courteously extended an invitation to the editors to make use of these for the meeting. The offer was accepted, and when the editors

gathered nearly every school paper was represented.

Officers were elected, a constitution and bylaws were adopted (I wonder what has become of them) and a get-acquainted hour ensued. It was wisely decided to have a banquet at each meeting of the association. Down at the Kentucky school a literary club was organized among the members of the staff, with meetings to be held monthly. It was an exceptionally well-educated group and the papers read were of a high order of merit. The club had a high-sounding name to start with, but I have forgotten what it was. After the first meeting it became "The Chameleon Club"-chameleons feed on air, you knowand after a year the club quietly folded up and passed out of existence-"starved to death."

The first regular meeting of the Little Paper Family Association took place at the Virginia School at Staunton when the convention met in that city. Dr. James L. Smith of the Minnesota Companion had been elected president, but he was unable to be present, so the duty of presiding was wished off on me. The job of arranging for the banquet had been assigned to that Virginia gentleman of the old school, Guilford D. Euritt, and he had selected the leading hotel of the city for the meeting place. He must have given the proprietor the impression that the expected guests were of "the quality," for we sat down that evening to a Lucullian feast of the best that Old Virginia could serve, and, believe it or not, the price was only 50 cents per plate.

At that time there was only one lady editor, Miss Olivia Grimes of "The Carolinian." She was given the seat of honor on my right and added a touch of good looks, wit, and charm to the gathering. That delightful old rebel, Capt. W. O. Connor of Georgia, also had a seat of honor and added to the flow of soul, but unfortunately, the sign language was not equal to translating the rebel yell. That is some-

thing for the ear, not the eye.

When I entered the profession, there were many of the old-time deaf teachers, "graduates" of a sixth- or seventh-grade course which was as far as the average State courses extended at that time. As George Wing, brilliant Minnesota teacher, once put it, these brethren were sometime floored in a wrestling bout with Lindlay Murray's grammar, but let no one sneer at them. They were a devoted group and by self-effort went on to improve their education until they

became the most successful teachers in their schools. Printing is one of the very best vocations for the deaf, but the schools were slow to take it up. At a number of the schools it was started by some deaf teacher, with a knowledge of the craft, who begged a case of discarded type and an ancient press from the local printing establishment and began the publication of a little paper for circulation at the school. The school papers of today are beautifully printed and illustrated, but I suspect that the present-day editors, if confronted with volume 1 of their papers would, like the little old lady in the nursery rhyme who met up with peddler Stout and had her skirts given a fashionable trim, exclaim "Lawk-a-mercy-me! This is none o'I !"

The North Carolina School established a printing plant just before the beginning of the War Between the States. But the school was closed during the war and the Confederate government took over the plant and used the press to print its currency. We read that-The press ran all day to print money with which to pay the army, and then all night to pay the printer.

In those days all printing was done from movable type, set by hand, and the take-home pay was between \$12 and \$20 per week. There was mourning among the deaf printers when the linotype first made its appearance. They feared that the employers would be unwilling to trust machines costing thousands of dollars to the operators who could not hear the warning sounds of trouble when something got out of order. At first their fears were justified, but soon the workmen convinced the owners that there is truth in Dr. Thomas Fox's claim that "eyes are worth twice as much as a pair of ears," and today deaf linotype operators are found in composing rooms in every corner of the Nation.

Since my retirement some 20 years ago I have, through the courtesy of the editors of the Little Paper Family, many of whom continue to send their papers to me, been able to keep up with the changes in the craft. I have noted with appreciation the improved all-round neatness in arrangement of material, of presswork, of mailing, in quality of paper, and in proofreading. The editorial pages are as bright and interesting today as they ever were, but it would be hard to improve on the ones put out by Dr. Tom Anderson, Dr. Caldwell, Dr. Argo, Dr. Blattner, Dr. Smith, Dr. Long, Dr. Harris Taylor, Dr. Hodgson, Dr. Jones, Dr. Runde, Dr. Fox, Dr. Sheridan, Dr. Laurens Walker and others.

One department in which I think there has been a noticeable improvement is in the proofreading. The typographical mistake, like the poor, is with us always, but the oldtimers were not so careful as the editors of today. Perhaps they agreed with Col. Harry Mc-Carty, one-time Secretary of State in Kentucky, and editor of a leading paper for over 50 years. One morning his paper appeared with a most amusing typographical error; the press gang teased him unmercifully about it. His reply was "When you have wrestled with woozy comps and unregenerate jours (journeymen) as many years as I, you will rate a typographical error as deserving only a feeble sigh."

But Dr. William K. Argo of the Colorado Index was a perfectionist—a typographical error was to him a needless aggravation, an abomination, and the Index always appeared with very few of these. On one occasion he announced that he intended to have at least one issue of the paper appear with not a single typographical error. When he got ready to issue the "perfect" edition he read the proofs over again and again, and once again, then issued his challenge to his brother editors to find a typographical error if they could. Swiftly came a message from Dr. Caldwell of the California News with the damning proof—an error on the first page and among the first few lines. Dr. Argo conceded that pride and a haughty spirit precede a fall, but accused Dr. Caldwell of using a magnifying glass to discover the error. Thereafter it required a search warrant to find a typographical error in the Index as long as he was the editor.

I have noted that a number of schools are satisfied to publish papers calculated to interest only the school personnel; no attempt is made to interest people outside the school circle. I think these papers are missing a great opportunity to make valuable friends among the public men, the schoolmen and other leading people of the State. On the other hand there are those who are too dependent on the contributions of their colleagues.

George M. Veditz was once conducting a column of criticism and comment for one of the school papers. He was due to receive every week a bundle of exchanges. One week these failed to arrive and his column was slim. When his foreman came begging for material Veditz said he felt like exclaiming with the dairyman, "I feel as if I had lost my best cow." Beware brethren of the quill lest the exchanges too often become the manna of life.

As I have said on other occasions, I feel that my lines of life tonight have indeed fallen in pleasant places, since I find myself a guest amid such hospitable surroundings. The members of the Little Paper Family are carrying on well the work begun by members of my generation. The Annals, in the capable hands of Dr. Doctor, and with an advisory committee headed by Dr. E. B. Boatner, is a magazine

of which Dr. Fay would indeed be proud.

I am proud to be the recipient of the Edward Allen Fay Award and to have had this opportunity to visit and to reminisce with "the boys."

A TRIBUTE TO DR. GEORGE M. McCLURE

(W. T. Griffing, editor, The Deaf Oklahoman.)

Ladies and gentlemen, 2 years ago at Colorado Springs Doc gave me an assignment that showed how beautifully horns can sprout once you have hit Paris. This time the role is sharply reversed. I am to prove that editors can also play a harp while cultivating a pair of wings. Doc's change of heart might be because of the 36-24-36's I gave him to drum up trade for the Annals. Then, too, most of the others who were at Manchester for the international congress have elected to hide behind the fifth amendment, which leaves just me to

be restored to society.

Editors do lead a hard life. The fact they do get by, school year after school year, is due largely to the fact they draw on that "extra effort." What is that? Not skilled in presenting the abstract, let this little story suffice: One dark night a very drunk man had the misfortune to wander into a cemetery where he fell in a newly dug grave. Try as hard as he might, he was not able to get out. Resigned to fate, he fell into a troubled sleep in a dark corner. Along came another drunk who likewise fell in the grave. He did not see the other fellow, who was watching his efforts to get out with mild amusement. Finally he said, "It is no use, brother. You can't get out." Believe it or not, just one jump was all that was needed to get the second fellow out of that grave.

Now, I'll try to flap my wings. This is one of the nicest things that could possibly happen at a gathering of the clan, the members of the Little Paper Family and their friends. To be asked to pay tribute to a great man is an assignment I like, yet the pleasure is touched with sadness because our friend is not able to be with us this evening to receive his "Oscar" and to see for himself how greatly he is both loved and appreciated by the old guard. We had counted big on his

being here, but fate has a way of deciding things for you.

Dr. George Morris McClure owns up to almost a hundred years of the grandest living to be found anywhere. He has lived life to the hilt and loved every minute of it. Mind you, 80 of those years have been dedicated to the happiness and the welfare of his people, the deaf. Where on earth could you hope to find a man like that? The simple truth is this—they do not come like Dr. McClure any more.

We are grateful that his life has been a part of ours because each of us, perhaps without knowing it, has drawn freely from the amazing source of his wisdom, his experience, and his friendship. This has helped us to become more dedicated to the work that is ours, more firmly resolved to try harder to do a better job. If fate has been unkind to us this evening in depriving us of his presence, then it was generously kind in the long ago when it was somehow arranged that he should become one of us, to lead and to inspire.

He has never lost interest in what is going on about and around him. In a recent letter he told me that the school exchanges which still come to him are his true love because they fill every nook and corner of his heart.

He is never too busy, as many of us know, to write letters of appreciation or encouragement, as the case might be. He is like that—

thoughtful, gracious, helpful.

While he was editor of the Standard, his writings showed a deep and penetrating mind, complemented by a rare understanding of all matters relating to the education of the deaf. His words carried the ring of truth because his entire life has been one that has caused

truth to shine at its brightest.

We of the Little Paper Family are very grateful to Dr. McClure for all that his busy life has done for us. We are most proud of him as a member, but more proud of him as a friend. He is forever in our minds and our hearts because he is truly one man who has lived in a house by the side of the road and been a friend to man.

TUESDAY, JUNE 27, 1961

READING

Play shed .- Section leader: Mr. Gilbert Delgado, supervising teacher, California School, Berkeley. 9-10 a.m.

Introduction: Mr. Gilbert Delgado.

Keynote speaker: Dr. Luther C. Gilbert, Professor Emeritus, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.

Interpreters: Lloyd Parks, Roy Parks.

10-10:10 a.m.

Organization of workshops.

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10:10-11:45 a.m.

Morning session of reading workshops.

1:15-2:15 p.m.

Afternoon session of reading workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

3:45 p.m.

Science Research Associates—SRA demonstration.

School building-Workshops and topics.

 Preprimary level (approximate age range 5-7): A. Initial development of word attack skills (word recognition) and the development of a meaningful vocabulary:

1. Methods in word recognition.

2. Procedures in building a meaningful vocabulary:

(a) Vocabulary readiness.(b) Experience vocabulary.

Leader: Miss Naomi Nortz. Recorder: Mrs. Betty Igleheart.

- B. Effecting reading comprehension or interpretation:
 - 1. Methods and procedures in reading presentation.

2. Visual aids used at this level.

3. Correlating language skills and reading skills.

Leader: Mrs. Katherine D. Miner.

Recorder: Bertha Richardson.

C. Reading readiness:

Reading experience activities.

2. Language experience.

3. Making reading an enjoyable activity.

Leader: Miss Juliet McDermott.

Recorder: Mrs. Nell Crocker.

2. Primary level (approximate ages 8-10):

A. Progressive development of word attack skills and development of a meaningful vocabulary:

Procedures used in teaching vocabulary.
 Word recognition skills and how they are developed.

Leader: Mr. Carl Gastman.

Recorder: Mrs. Agnes Crossman.

B. Reading comprehension or interpretation:

1. Methods and procedures in reading presentation.

2. Reading materials on the pimary level. 3. Visual aids, charts, and other reading aids.

Leader: Miss Rosemary Burke.

C. Processes in building effective work or study habits, concentration, and the development of reading appreciation:

1. Classroom control and its relation to effective study.

2. Motivating the deaf child to read.

3. Procedures used to encourage outside reading.

Leader: Miss Evelyn Shellgrain. Recorder: Mrs. Louise Barr.

3. Intermediate level (ages 11-14):

A. Further development of word attack skills and the continuous development of a meaningful vocabulary:

1. Discussion of methods used in teaching word recognition. 2. The crucial years in vocabulary development, how we can better bridge the gap that occurs at this level.

Leader: Mrs. Kathryn Williamson. Recorder: Miss Helen Myers.

Interpreter: Anne M. Davis.

B. Effecting reading comprehension or interpretation and reading flexibility (rate):

1. Methods in reading presentation.

2. Teacher demonstrations of various materials presently used in reading.

Leader: Miss Alyce Thomas. Interpreter: Mrs. William Fair.

C. Process in developing effective work and study habits and the development of reading appreciation.

1. Motivating the deaf child to read.

2. Developing and expanding interest in reading.

3. Methods in building study habits in and out of class.

Leader: Mr. Justin Dozier. Recorder: Mr. Maurice Moriarity.

Interpreter: Edith Fauth. 4. Advanced level (Ages 15-20):

A. Methods and procedures in expanding word attack skills and developing a lasting meaningful vocabulary:

Accelerating vocabulary development.
 Methods used in building a meaningful vocabulary.

3. Processes used in developing independent word attack skills. Leader: Mr. Mervin Garretson.

Recorder: Mr. Floyd McDowell.

B. Means of effecting reading comprehension or interpretation and reading flexibility (rate):

1. Procedures used in reading presentation. 2. Teacher-demonstrated reading materials.

Leader: Mr. William Blea.

Recorder: Mr. Robert Lennan.

Interpreter: Mrs. Emma Cunningham. C. Building effective study and work habits and the development of a lasting reading appreciation:

1. Reading motivation.

2. Activities to develop interest in reading.

3. Means of creating and fostering good study and work habits. Leader: Mr. Kenneth Lane.

Recorder: Mr. Elliott Igleheart.

5. Development of special reading skills used in the content subjects (intermediate and advanced):

1. Coordination of reading skills necessary in the content subjects by the reading and content subject teachers.

2. Developing ability to use reference materials.

3. How to make good use of library time and facilities.

Leader: Miss Katherine Casey. Recorder: Mrs. Edythe Montgomery.

Interpreter: Lloyd Parks.

6. Evaluation and description of materials used in the intermediate and advanced grades (4-10):

1. Exhibits and discussion of materials used at this level. 2. Introduction to exhibits of several publishing companies.

3. Low level, high interest materials. Leader: Mr. C. L. Gover.

Recorder: Mrs. Elsie Turechek.

7. Visual aids in reading—the role of captioned films:

Reading projectors and accelerators.

2. Opaque projector. 3. Captioned films program.

Leader: Mr. Malcom Norwood. Recorder: Mrs. Harriet Gough.

8. Reading Research-The Role of Reading in Developing Expressive Language:

1. Speechreading and reading.

2. Reading and its effect on syntax.

Measurement of reading.
 A review of the chapter "Reading and Written Language" from "The Psychology of Deafness" by Dr. Helmer R. Myklebust.

Leader: Miss Ann Mulholland. Recorder: Miss Frances Phillips.

Interpreter: Roy Parks.

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9. Reading for the Slow Learner (all levels):

1. Methods and materials used.

2. Classroom procedures in teaching the slow learner to read.

Leader: Mrs. Bernadette Attleweed. Recorder: Miss Ada Mundinger. Interpreter: Mrs. Tommy Hall.

Mr. Delgado. We have a great deal to do today, and I hope everyone will profit from our discussion groups. As you will note from your program, reading has been broken down into levels and several phases of reading are to be discussed at each level. The thinking being that this would deal more with specifics and tangibles and you would have something to take home with you. Reading is entirely too broad a topic to undertake otherwise.

I want to thank all the schools who submitted questions on the questionnaire that was sent out. This will help bring out our own

problems for discussion.

Laboratory and scientific research has played an important part in explaining the reading process and learning to read. We all know there is a great gap in the reading achievement of our deaf children as compared to hearing children. What can we learn from research

that might help bridge this gap?

Our speaker for today was born in Meridian, Miss. He did his undergraduate work at Mississippi College. He received a masters degree from the University of Virginia. In 1931 he completed his doctoral work at the University of Chicago. He was assistant professor at the University of Virginia for 2 years. He was an instructor of education at the University of Chicago. He then joined the faculty at the University of California, Berkeley. Here he has been professor of education since 1939. He is at present president of the California Educational Research Association.

Dr. Gilbert has done a great deal of research in the area of reading and I am sure is very well qualified to discuss the interesting topic— "Reading—Learning and the Learner." Dr. Luther C. Gilbert.

READING—LEARNING AND THE LEARNER

(L. C. GILBERT, professor emeritus, University of California, Berkeley)

The problem of learning to read and the failure to make the desired progress in reading have for many years stimulated a large amount of professional writing. As long ago as 1934, for example, Betts published a bibliography of 1,198 studies relating to the analysis, prevention, and correction of reading difficulties. In 1945 Betts and Betts published a second index of 8,278 references. During the period from 1950 to 1954 nearly 1,500 articles dealing with problems of learning to read or the failure to learn to read were published. Since 1954 articles of the same kind have continued to appear in undiminishing

Many of these studies have reported classroom and clinical research which have contributed to our understanding of the reading process. With less stringent limitations of time, it would be a pleasure for me to summarize these findings. But our time today is brief, permitting the consideration of only a few. I plan to confine my discussion, therefore, to a selected group of laboratory findings.

At a recent conference on problems relating to reading and to the teaching of the skill, a professor of English literature listened to an address on the historical development of apparatus and techniques used in objective study of the eye movements in reading. Afterward he expressed grave concern over the application of scientific procedures. It was his contention that reading is an art, and that its value to the individual depends upon intelligent and cultivated interpretation and appreciation, that when educational psychologists begin to apply laboratory techniques to reading there is danger of overemphasis on its mechanical aspects.

In reply it should be stated that today the importance of comprehension in depth is being stressed more effectively than ever before, and the possibility of overemphasis on the mechanical aspects is extremely remote. Because of the laboratory techniques, and not in spite of them, educational psychologists have been able to inquire into the nature of the fundamental processes of reading, and through an understanding of the underlying principles, to effect significant advances in teaching reading for appreciation and interpretation.

The laboratory attack upon educational problems is not new. During the latter half of the 19th century, a number of scientists here and abroad became interested in visual perception. They wanted to know how much the eyes can see at a glance, how many letters, how many objects, how many numbers. They wondered whether serial order and grouping influence the number of digits perceived. Does it make any difference whether the words are familiar or not? In order to answer these questions, the psychologists designed a variety of tachistoscopic devices which exposed their materials for measured periods of time. From their experiments came a wealth of valuable information.

¹Betts, Emmett, "Bibliography on Problems Related to the Analysis, Prevention, and Correction of Reading Difficulties," Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pa.
³Betts, Emmett, and Betts, Thelma, "An Index to Professional Literature on Reading and Related Topics," American Book Co., New York, N.Y.
⁸Gilbert, Luther C., and Holmes, Jack A., "Reading: Psychology," Review of Educational Research, April 1955, vol. XXVII, No. 1.

Extremely significant for education was the conclusion of James McKeen Cattell that the ordinary reading of adults proceeds by words, phrases, and sentences rather than letter by letter. Subsequently it was learned that words may be recognized because of their length, their general form, and the context even when the modified letters are too small to be identified.

Even more important were the studies of eye movements. In 1879 two Frenchmen, Lamare and Javal, reported their observation that in reading the movements of the eyes are not continuous across the page but are interrupted by frequent pauses or fixations. The implications of this observation stimulated other workers to inquire into the nature

and meaning of these fixations.

A hundred years ago teachers taught reading by the alphabeticaloral method. Pupils first learned the alphabet. At that time practically all school reading was of the oral type and whenever a reader came to an unfamiliar word he spelled it out letter by letter. Despite a brilliant criticism of this method by Horace Mann, it might have continued to flourish but for the subsequent findings of certain laboratory investigations. If, as these investigations showed, perception in mature reading proceeds by words, phrases, and sentences, why begin with a letter-by-letter method which must later be discarded? The fallacy of the alphabetic approach was obvious.

Furthermore, why should almost all school reading continue to be of the oral type? After the turn of the century books, magazines, and newspapers began to be available in incredible quantities and most adult reading was done silently. Yet school reading was largely oral, probably because it was assumed that silent reading and oral reading

were essentially the same sort of process.

Here again laboratory techniques were employed to probe the question. In a classical investigation in 1920, Guy Buswell 6 demonstrated beyond question that essential differences exist between the oral reading process and the silent reading process. In oral reading attention must be given to each word as it is spoken and thus the visual recognition span is limited, and the number of regressive movements are far greater than in silent reading. In other words, it was shown that good readers read silently much faster than they can possibly read orally. This conclusion was largely responsible for the shift in emphasis from oral to silent reading in the upper elementary grades.

Influential also in modifying teaching procedures in the upper grades and in the high schools was another laboratory study by Judd and Buswell.7 Here they found that the size of the unit recognized in reading varies with the difficulty of the material, the training and purpose of the reader, and the conditions under which the reading is done. The pattern of a good reader reading exciting fiction for fun differs from that of the same person reading a fine poem analytically. They pointed out that high school teachers must recognize many types of reading and give specific training designed to develop an

⁴ Cattell, James McKeen, "Uber die Zeit der Erkennung and Benennung von Schriftzeichen, Bildern und Faben," Philosophische Studien, II (1885), 635–650.

⁵ Javal, Louis, "Essai sur le Physiologie de la Lecture," Annales d'Oculistique, LXXXII, Novembre-Decembre 1879.

⁸ Buswell, Guy T., "An Experimental Study of the Eye-Voice Span in Reading," Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 18, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1920.

⁷ Judd, Charles H., and Buswell, Guy T., "Silent Reading: A Study of the Various Types," Supplemental Educational Monographs No. 23, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1922.

appropriate flexibility of approach. Fluent, progressive reading does not result from the analytical examination of each word of the text, nor is careful analytical attention given to the meaning in skimming for specific bits of information. The implications of this study for education have been far-reaching: There has been identified a large number of specific skills—over and above the basic mechanical skills which call for special instruction in the intermediate schools and the high schools. The list includes reading for main ideas, reading for

details, forecasting results, skimming, and so on.

In the past it has been a rather general practice for the classroom teacher to call upon one pupil after another to read aloud. During this oral reading the other pupils were required to keep the pace and keep the place while reading silently. A photographic study of the eyes of silent readers 8 following oral readers pointed out the danger in this procedure. Unless the quality and the rate of the oral reader are clearly superior to the quality and rate of the silent reader, the silent reader is penalized. The desirable development of his reading habits is inhibited, and, in addition, his interest in the outcome of the story soon changes to boredom.

The literature on reading is replete with articles relating to speed and comprehension, but there is still considerable confusion regarding their development. Simply moving the eyes along the lines of the printed page without extracting the meaning is not reading. It is

visual activity-nothing more.

In the beginning stages, the goal should be to cause the child to carry meaning to the printed word—to attach to it a concept which he has acquired in some other way. In the later grades the goal changes, at least in part. Here the attention should be focused upon showing the child how to gain new ideas and concepts from the printed word.

Let us consider the first time the child sees the written or printed word "dog." It means nothing. It is just a set of marks on a background. Yet he has seen dogs, romped with them, fed them, cared for them. When he sees a new dog, he perceives it as a dog. In short, he has built a concept. The first problem, then, in teaching of reading, is the building of an association between the printed word

and the meaning he has gained earlier by other means.

At a later stage, the process must be in part reversed. Suppose that the book tells a story about an unfamiliar kind of dog living in a distant part of the world. The goal here is to show the child how to gain information about this new kind of dog-his size, his build, his trustworthiness, his strength, his value to man. Whereas in the early stages the pupil must take meaning to the words, in the more advanced stages he must be able also to take meaning from the words.

The child's growth in the ability to comprehend develops primarily from his ability to recognize words quickly and associate them instantly with past experience. Clearly, it reflects also his ability to see the words in a new context and from this new arrangement to abstract meanings which are informative, and thus to use the words as a medium for gaining the background which is an important part of education.

Gilbert, L. C., "The Effect on Silent Reading of Attempting To Follow Oral Reading," Elementary School Journal, vol. XI, No. 8, April 1940.

Speed of reading or speed of comprehension—to name it more aptly—is the speed with which the reader is able to recognize the printed words and relate them in the manner necessary for the abstraction of the desired meaning. The word "desired" is used here advisedly; it indicates the particular purpose at the moment. The purpose in reading has a significant influence upon the rate.

Suppose that a child is asked to identify the animal in the following

story:

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The mouse saw a tiny hole in the cooky box. In he ran. He was very happy. He ate and ate. At last he could eat no more. He wanted to go home. But now he was too big. He could not get out of the hole.

As soon as the child begins to read, he sees the word "mouse." Having identified the animal, there is no need to go on. In this selection the identification would require only about one-fourth of a second. Since there are 47 words in the story it might be claimed that he read all of them in one-fourth of a second and that would total about 11,000 words per minute. But this sort of approach is not reading in the true sense of the word. Rather, it is a form of skimming.

If the child read also for details he would have to note not only the animal in the story, but what he was able to see. What did he see? A tiny hole. Where was the hole? In a box. What kind of box was it? A cooky box. What was his response? He was happy. What did he do after getting into the box? He ate and ate. And what resulted from his eating? He grew so large that when he

wanted to get out of the box to go home, he could not do so.

The difference between skimming and reading for details is clearly apparent. Each has its purpose and each is valuable when used in the proper way. But the reading rate and the skimming rate should not be confused. The processes are as different as counting and multiplying.

Because of the essential nature of the beginning stages of reading, only minor emphasis should be placed on speed in the early grades. The association of meanings and symbols is a gradual process, and one which should not be rushed at the start. It requires both time

and experience.

Recent laboratory studies have shown that a major factor in overall speed of reading at any level is the speed of processing the visual stimulus within the central nervous system. It takes about three times as long for the visualization of words and phrases when the eyes are functioning following saccadic movements as when they function at a stationary position. These and other findings seem to indicate that the pupil should first be taught to identify the words without the necessity of moving the eyes. This, then, should be followed by training in reading the words in context. In the primary grades, particularly, a balance must be maintained between training for the visual identification of words and phrases and training for speed of interpretation when the words are set in context.

There is an additional point or two to be made here, it seems to me, regarding the measurement of speed in reading. Laboratory studies

⁹ Gilbert. Luther C., "Speed of Processing Visual Stimuli and Its Relation to Reading," Journal of Educational Psychology, vol. 55, No. 1, 1259, pp. 8-14.

⁷⁵³⁸⁷⁻⁻⁶²⁻⁻⁻¹¹

have shown a substantially higher correlation between speed and comprehension in reading and speed and accuracy in processing mentally the visual stimuli than between speed of vision and rate and comprehension in reading.¹⁰ It is important to avoid the confusion which results from assuming that speed of vision is the same as speed of in-

terpretation of the visual stimuli.

Tachistoscopic records have demonstrated repeatedly that both good and poor readers at the college level can identify the visual stimuli of a phrase of sense material after exposure for a period which is only a fraction of the time required for the fixation pause in reading similar phrases when they are encountered in easy prose. An explanation of this phenomenon lies in the use of the afterimage in the tachistoscopic tests.

Because of the use of the afterimages in tachistoscopic work, readers are sometimes credited with an unduly high rate of reading and with an unnaturally wide span of apprehension. A large part of the fixation pause time seems to be used for processing and interpreting in the course of normal reading. This gives a possible explanation for the wide discrepancies between the speed and span of visual perception as measured by the tachistoscope and the speed and span in the normal reading of easy prose.

The research studies to which I have called your attention have all been conducted with hearing subjects. The findings should be checked by comparable research for the deaf. It seems probable, however, that the implications apply equally well to all readers. In the main the process appears to be the same for both. But there are certain areas of

difference, particularly in the beginning stages of reading.

The hearing child learns to identify sounds and associate them with his experience, thus building meaning into a wide preliminary vocabulary. When the 6-year-old goes to school he has a spoken vocabulary of about 2,500 words. This oral language gives him an unfair advantage over the deaf child. Learning to speak words without the opportunity of hearing them creates a problem unlike anything experienced

by the hearing child.

Learning lipreading differs in important respects from learning to read from the board or from the printed page. When a child looks at a written or printed word he may look as long as he likes in order to establish the visual pattern. When he watches the lips of a person pronouncing the words, he is under pressure to work at a high rate of speed. Sign language may be used in a limited way to supplement the instruction. But there is a distinct limitation. Sign language has meaning only for those few who are adept at it. All these facts point in one direction: wherever possible, the deaf child should be taught to speak the language and to read lips effectively, if he is to function in a normal way in society.

In spite of the importance of lipreading, there is a dearth of reliable research in this area. I am certain that there are those of you who have had experience in teaching lipreading and have found it extremely difficult, at least in some cases. Why? What are the limit-

ing factors? How best can they be compensated for?

jo Gilbert, Luther C., "Saccadic Movements as a Factor in Visual Perception in Reading," Journal of Educational Psychology, vol. 50, No. 1, 1959, pp. 15-17.

We generally assume that the age of 6 or 6½ is the optimum age for starting the hearing child to read. Is this also the optimum for starting the deaf child to read? Reading readiness is a complex problem causing a great deal of trouble for teachers of both the hearing and the deaf. Profound would be our indebtedness to anyone who could make a major breakthrough in this field.

Some writers claim that using a proper form of a nonoral method the deaf child will make as much progress in learning to read as the hearing pupil using a visual-oral method. Certainly we need to re-

duce the number of backward readers among the deaf.

Since speech develops at the age of 2 or 3 with hearing children, does this indicate that it is probably advantageous to begin speech training and lipreading and other forms of communication with the deaf children at this same age level? The answer should be found in the laboratory through research which can be checked, and not merely in opinions and prejudice.

The whole field of testing needs attention. Is it possible that some pupils can profit most from speech instruction while others require visual instruction? If there are individual differences, how

best, then, can each child be trained?

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CONCLUSIONS

In general learning to read seems to be very similar for all pupils, and the research to date, therefore, contributes to our knowledge of reading both for the hearing and for the deaf. But there are certain points of difference.

In the beginning stages of learning to read, any child must take the meaning to the words. Later on, when he has attained a degree of competence, the process is reversed; he can now take the meanings from the words, because of the way in which they are arranged.

The basic problem, as I see it, is the determination of the best methods for building the concepts which the child must first take to the printed words.

What concepts are easy to build? Which ones are hard? How

best can they be built rapidly? Enjoyably? Completely?

It is here, I believe, that we have a golden opportunity. Problems of this type lend themselves uniquely to the methods of the laboratory.

There is a tremendous interest in research today. Much of it is related to the hearing child. It is my conviction that the problem of

the deaf child is of at least equal importance.

Mr. Delgado. Thank you very much, Dr. Gilbert. We have had some food for thought. Your point of how in the early stages of reading the child must bring meaning to the printed word is well taken, and I would like to emphasize, reading readiness, activities, experiences—spontaneous or fabricated—are very, very necessary tools to initiating reading. Also, the fact that there has not been enough research in the area of reading for the deaf is something we have long felt and wanted.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

WORKSHOP I-INITIAL DEVELOPMENT OF WORD ATTACK SKILLS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MEANINGFUL VOCABULARY

(Leader: NAOMI NORTZ, Washington School, Vancouver)

(Recorder: Mrs. MILDRED DONALDSON, Washington School, Vancouver)

At the preprimary level our general subject for discussion was word recognition and meaningful vocabulary. The following specific topics highlighted this discussion:

1. Phonics—use of charts.

2. Building concepts from printed symbols—activity programs, experience charts, children's own illustrations, combinations of meaningful experiences.

3. Pictures of vowel sounds.

4. Word lists-word sources, continued reading series, new

words taught in context.

5. Motivation for learning new vocabulary-number work, meaningful activities, sequence stories, dramatization.

Workshop II—Effecting Reading Comprehension and INTERPRETATION

(Leader: Mrs. KATHERINE D. MINER, Day School, Portland) (Recorder: Mrs. MILDRED DONALDSON, Washington School, Vancouver)

Reading, one of the first important skills that a deaf child should learn, has always been a major problem in our work. Experience adds to reading readiness. Since deaf children are limited in experience, they are much slower than hearing children in arriving at reading readiness. Preschool experience, therefore, is especially helpful in preparing the deaf child for beginning the reading program.

There followed a discussion of methods and procedure found to be most effective in teaching reading, including dramatization, flash

cards, the use of charts, and an assortment of visual aids.

Our group was in full agreement that no device can take the place of teacher-pupil rapport. We also agreed that reading cannot be effectively achieved until there is understanding of language through experience and lipreading.

WORKSHOP III—READING READINESS

(Leader: Miss Julier Modermorr, supervising teacher, South Carolina School, Spartanburg)

(Recorder: Mrs. Nell Crocker, South Carolina School, Spartanburg)

Activities

1. Activities should be started when children have around 100 words.

2. Activities should be built around things that children are interested in, such as a birthday party, a visit to a farm, etc.

3. Activities should be written in very simple usable language.

4. Test activities by drawings, dramatizations, and oral reading.
5. Build stories on pictures taken from prereaders, health and science books.

Language experience for reading

1. Children reread the experience charts talked about above.

2. Children are lead to tell their own experiences outside of school in simple language.

3. Children read daily simple news written on the blackboard by

4. Children read charts written by the teacher using pictures taken from preprimers and other similar materials.

5. Encourage children to express their thought in writing as soon as possible.

Making reading an enjoyable activity

1. Reading of illustrated cards and letters from home. These must be written in simple language.

2. Keeping of individual scrapbooks.

3. Keeping of individual picture vocabularly books showing the speech and spelling of each word.

4. Keeping of individual illustrated news books.

5. Matching pictures to printed words.6. Reading simple stories to children.

WORKSHOP IV—PROGRESSIVE DEVELOPMENT OF WORD ATTACK SKILLS AND DEVELOPMENT OF A MEANINGFUL VOCABULARY

(Leader: Carl Gastman, California School, Berkeley) (Recorder: Mrs. Mabel Shannon, Mississippi School, Jackson)

After much discussion the group came to these conclusions:

1. That articulation as brought about in phonics is not really reading.

2. That the question form be taught along with the statements.

That we as teachers of the deaf fail to expose the child enough

3. That we as teachers of the deaf fail to expose the child enough times to difficult material.

4. That we correlate reading, language, and auditory training.5. That vocabulary be taught through meaningful experiences.

6. That we teach the use of the primary dictionary.

7. That we teach the multiple meaning of words at an early age. Use the moment the opportunity presents it. Use over and over in lip reading and writing.

8. It is not sufficient to teach children how to read unless one teaches them at the same time to want to read and to love to read. We must be on a constant search for better ways to reach these objectives.

Workshop V—Reading Comprehension or Interpretation

(Leader: Miss Rosemary Burke, supervising principal, Western Pennsylvania School, Pittsburgh)

(Recorder: Mrs. Mabel Shannon, Mississippi School, Jackson)

The following methods and procedures in reading presentation were agreed upon:

1. The use of various charts.

Visual aids.
 Film strips.

4. Sequence stories.

5. Word games.

6. Questions used with pictures or sentences.

7. Dramatization and meaningful experiences.

It was also agreed that deaf children like to read orally. They get

the feel of rhythm of the words.

There were five ways of testing for comprehension agreed upon.

There were nive ways of testing for comprehension agreed upon. They were—through multiple choice, recall, question and answer, drawing pictures and drawing pictures in sequence.

The conclusion of all present was that it is the responsibility of the primary teacher to teach the basic skills, and in so doing to instill in the child a love for reading.

Workshop VI—Processes in Building Effective Work or Study Habits, Concentration, and the Development of Reading Appreciation at 8- to 14-Year Level

(Leaders: Evelyn Shellgrain and Justin Dozier, Mary E. Bennett School, Los Angeles)

(Recorder: Mrs. Louise Barri, secondary classes, Los Angeles)

1. Teacher must create the interest.

2. Use children's point of interest to set the pace.

3. Begin a story—let the children finish it.

(a) This requires prepreparation in keywords, new vocabulary use of pictures or film strip with related background.

(b) There should be a followup.

4. Fairy stories, fables, myths.

(a) Story lady.

(b) Good library program is important.

(c) Make myths dramatic.

5. Reading books.

(a) Classmate edition (Lyons-Carnahan) Fourth Easy Reading, low-vocabulary grade, same as regular sixth grade edition. Exciting stories with wide interest span. Teacher edition is very valuable

(b) Reader's Digest Skill Builders.

(c) Golden Rule Series-American Book Co.

6. Book Reports-

(a) Most felt some type of summary is good.

(b) Share reports with the class.

(c) For slow learners child may draw a picture illustrating main ideas.

(d) Reports should be carefully checked.

(e) Reports should be evaluated on basis of child's ability.

7. News reports.

(a) Children should be encouraged to bring news clippings or news periodicals.

(b) Certain TV programs are valuable—Bold Journey, 20th Century.

8. Classroom atmosphere.

(a) Should be well planned.

(b) Suggestions should be made often and new ideas introduced at suitable intervals.

9. Hobbies are valuable.

10. Parental cooperation in leisure reading.

(a) Reading must not be under pressure.(b) Lists should be given to each child for summer reading.

(c) Proper atmosphere at home must be created.

11. Multiple meanings.

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(a) Start at early age.

(b) When opportunity arises, use it—teach incidentally. Do not expect it to be given back.

(c) Later use specific teaching.

(d) Use a reference chart.(e) Use a dictionary.

12. Outlines and summaries should be started at any early age.

13. Necessity of drills for concentration.
(a) Again, start at an early age.

(b) Various games are valuable.

14. Use of poetry.

(a) Excellent for speech work, development of rhythm, and auditory training.

(b) Should be a pleasure, not a task.

SUMMARY

We underestimate the ability of the deaf child—if they are given the opportunity, they will surprise us with what they have learned.

WORKSHOP VII—FURTHER DEVELOPMENT OF WORD ATTACK SKILLS AND THE CONTINUOUS DEVELOPMENT OF A MEANINGFUL VOCABULARY

(Leader: Kathryn Williamson, teacher, California School, Berkeley)

(Recorder: Mrs. Catherine Ramger, teacher, California School, Berkeley)

 Λ discussion of the five methods of word recognition resulted in the following ranking:

1. Sight.

2. Context clues.

3. Referring to the dictionary.

4. Structural analysis.

5. Phonics.

That is, sight recognition is the method used first, the others are gradually added on, except for phonics which cannot be used with all deaf children.

The conclusion arrived at was that using a combination of all five is better than any one of them alone. It was felt that teaching vocabulary through the prefix-suffix-root word attack should begin at the lower intermediate level.

Vocabulary taught is usually both selective and incidental. Mrs. Williamson showed how she makes use of the Thorndike vocabulary

lists. Her steps are:

Display pictures on the bulletin board.
 Explain pictures and word meanings.
 Require study of words and meanings.

4. Test-

(a) Matching.(b) Elliptical sentences. (c) Original language.

(d) Master multiple choice test. Children keep track of new vocabulary in notebooks.

Vocabulary for field trips, or the like, needs to be pretaught. This is felt to be true also for basal reading vocabulary so that the child will enjoy the story when he reads it. The methods of teaching this vocabulary will be the ones previously discussed.

There is need for special work on idiomatic and colloquial expres-

sion and usage.

There are various ways of stimulating vocabulary increase, such as rewording daily commands, using crossword puzzles and riddles.

The reading teacher feels that reading is an integral part of all subject study (geography, history, science, etc.) and that this should be kept in mind so that work in these subject fields won't degenerate into mere acquisition of memorized facts.

To unlock the door to reading then, it is necessary that the teacher be cognizant of and employ every possible method, suiting the method

to the immediate need.

Finally, the teacher must be enthusiastic and optimistic.

WORKSHOP VIII—EFFECTING READING COMPREHENSION OR INTERPRE-TATION AND READING FLEXIBILITY (RATE)

(Leader: ALYCE THOMAS, supervising teacher, California School, Riverside) (Recorder: B. GRIFFING, teacher, California School, Riverside)

Oral reading

Oral reading is used for speech and lipreading exercises, for directed reading, vocabulary work and phrasing.

Oral reading correlates with language work. The tendency, how-

ever, is not to stress oral reading.

Flashcards

Use of flashcards depends upon the class being taught, the teacher's methods, and the lesson being presented.

Correlation of reading and language

Reading and language are almost inseparable. Stories offer an opportunity to drill on language principles. There are many times when composition can be related to a story. Responses to a question require language from the pupils. Stories offer opportunity for pupils to study usage of pronouns, verbs, phrases, etc.

Projecting pages of basic readers and other printed materials helps teach reading to deaf children

A report was given on this paper. A discussion followed.

Voluntary reading

It was the feeling that book clubs such as scholastic book service offered the best available material for outside reading. Most club selections have variety, appeal to the children, and often have books that contribute to understanding of science, social studies, and other subjects.

Vocabulary

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ce ub ks er Amount of vocabulary work and the kind of vocabulary study depends upon the material being presented. Dictionary skills facilitate vocabulary building. Reading level of the class decides which level of dictionary is appropriate. It is essential that an appropriate level is used. A reading classroom should be equipped with several levels of dictionaries.

Method of teaching

The group felt that method and approach depend upon the purpose and type of material. It is unwise to be regimented to a "way" to do it.

Reading machines

The tachistoscope was reported as an excellent machine for concentration and retention. It was not used by the reporter as a means of increasing reading speed. The control reader was reported as a good instrument for developing reading rate. There is material which can be used with this instrument on the intermediate level.

Workshop IX—Methods and Procedures in Expanding Word Attack Skills and Developing a Lasting Meaningful Vocabulary (ages 15–20)

(Leader: Mervin Garretson, head teacher, Montana School, Great Falls)
(Recorder: Emil Ladner, teacher, California School, Berkeley)

All participants agree that the acquisition of a wide reading vocabulary is very essential to the deaf student to enable him to read with understanding and interest.

To build up the student's vocabulary, several methods were recom-

mended.

1. One or two words a day by each teacher in the advanced department. Each teacher explains the same words to each rotating class. For example: The science teacher explains the words in their scientific meaning. The social studies teacher explains the same words as they apply in history, civics, or geography. There should be a test at the end of each semester. The supervising teacher is to furnish the list of words.

2. Put a list of new or unfamiliar words with meanings on the

board before the class begins to read a story.

3. Use of word games, such as having each student look up the same new word in the dictionary and make up an original sentence to

show he understands the meaning.

4. Use of materials especially designed for vocabulary building, such as the Reader's Digest "Practice Readers" (Webster Publishing Co.), "SRA Reading Kits," "Skilltest for Junior High Schools," Scholastic magazine.

5. Use of summer journals to record experiences away from school. Encourage children to ask relatives and friends for the vocabulary

they need.

 Counselors can help build up a vocabulary list for dormitory and extracurricular activities. Also to discuss current events.

7. Use of crossword puzzles and captioned films for the deaf.

8. Use of "core" curriculum or unit plan as a vocabulary builder.

Include as many field trips as possible.

It is also recommended that this convention establish a committee to find ways and means of adapting the classics as reading texts for deaf children.

Workshop X—Means of Effecting Reading Comprehension or Interpretation and Reading Flexibility (Rate)

(Leader: Mr. WILLIAM BLEA, teacher, California School, Riverside) (Recorder: ROBERT LENNAN, teacher, California School, Riverside)

1. How to derive meanings from context clues.—New vocabulary is first presented in its context. The child is to guess the meaning by the

ideas that precede and follow the new word.

A method used at the California School for the Deaf at Riverside is to present a list of 100 vocabulary words at the beginning of each semester. The words are then to be found in a contextual sentence in a newspaper or magazine. Also, the definition, and an original sentence utilizing the word are to be written. These then are compiled in a folder type notebook. This work requires a full semester's work, on an individual basis. At the end of the semester, these books are checked by the teacher.

The necessity of utilizing Latin and Greek derivatives as a device in

understanding word meaning was discussed.

2. Comprehending direct and indirect meanings.—One method utilized by schools is dramatization of the story so that the child may understand the implicit meaning of the story.

Another method utilized is drill work in connotation meaning of

words.

The outline precis method is another widely used concept of pres-

entation of direct or indirect meaning.

3. Drawing conclusions.—Two methods used are: To stop the reading of the story prior to the ending and have the pupils give their ideas as to what the outcome of the story will be. (This stimulates the children's imagination.) The second method involves the changing of the story ending by the children.

4. Reading phrases, not words.—One method used in achieving this

goal involves the following steps:

(a) Drills in meaningful phrases which build up into sentence comprehension.

(b) Use vocabulary words in a sentence which shows the mean-

ing explicitly.

(c) Discussion of synonyms and antonyms for the words in

question.

5. Conclusion.—It was suggested that research may show that children know more than present achievement tests indicate.

Workshop XI—Building Effective Study and Work Habits and the Development of a Lasting Reading Appreciation

(Leader: Kenneth Lane, Washington School, Vancouver)
(Recorder: Elliott Igleheabt, teacher, Washington School, Vancouver)

The workshop discussion was limited generally to reading motivation and some of the activities employed by teachers to develop interest in the class. Among the more significant topical contributions to the discussion were the following:

Making wide and varied use of humor to get and hold attention.
 Making clear the principles by which the class is to be conducted

and the responsibilities of the students.

3. Emphasizing ideas or content more than vocabulary and mechanical aspects of reading.

4. Maintaining individualized collateral reading program.

5. Clarifying vocabulary, phrases, expressions before reading assignment through explanation, quizzes, drills, and emphasis of context and frame of reference.

6. Presenting historical background, biographical material, and other "color" in preparation for a reading assignment.

7. Drawing from personal student experiences related to the story. 8. Reading in class, which would include questions and discussion at intermediate points throughout the story.

9. Storytelling, oral book reports, competitions by which students

motivate each other.

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10. Use of poetry and imaginative materials in the reading curriculum to develop feeling and imagination.

11. Employment of outline-precis-composition plan to foster analy-

sis, clarification, comprehension, and expression.

12. Giving persistent evidence of the instructor's enthusiasm for his subject and his relationship with his students.

Workshop XII—Development of Special Reading Skills Used in the Content Subjects (Intermediate and Advanced)

(Leader: Mrs. Edythe Montgomery, teacher, Georgia School, Cave Spring) (Recorder: Betty Newbrough, teacher, California School, Berkeley)

The coordination of reading skills necessary in the content subjects

by both the reading and content subject were considered first.

In arithmetic we discussed ideas that would help our children get the point in arithmetic word problems. It was the opinion of the group that key word charts such as "more than," "fewer than," had a use, but should not be relied upon completely; that true comprehension should be the aim in problem teaching. The second idea was how students should be introduced to their textbooks. Pupils should know the complete format of the book before beginning the study of it. They should know the table of contents, maps, keys, lists, and glossaries. They should also know the unit formation of the book, the main idea, subtopics, and the testing material of each unit. They should be shown how to use the topic sentence in each paragraph to guide them in getting the ideas which the unit covers. In helping our children to prepare for tests, they should be encouraged to follow the format of the units as a means of recall and organizing supplementary material.

Activities to encourage children to read actively rather than passively in the social studies might include map work, field trips, library, reading in their own fields of interests, and so forth. Social studies should be the basis for compositions and correlation with the reading program. Part of the difficulty that our children have in the social studies field is their difficulty in understanding many of the abstract

ideas in our historical background.

Developing the ability to use reference material should be begun in a simple form in the third or fourth grade. Additional skills should be taught at higher levels and all skills should be retaught as often as necessary to make them a permanent tool for the child's use. The encyclopedia is a tool which should be used every day and the use of the topical aids supplied with them should be utilized as needed. The reading of maps and graphs, and so forth, should be begun simply and

early, and should be continuous in scope and difficulty.

Individual library work should be assigned and all the facilities of the library should have continuous use. Time for leisure reading should not be an assigned period, but part of the child's own free time. The number of books a child should read should depend upon the child, his ability, his interest, and his desires, but perhaps a report of one book per week should be required of the brighter, college-bound students. Children's interest in library reading can be a source of arousing interests in other students.

WORKSHOP XIII—VISUAL AIDS IN READING—THE ROLE OF CAPTIONED FILMS

(Leader: Malcolm Norwood, specialist, captioned films for the deaf, U.S. Office of Education

(Recorder: Mrs. HARRIETT GOUGH, Kendall School, Washington, D.C.)

The leader asked the members of the group about their main interests and the burning question seemed to be "How to use films" and how to encourage teachers to use visual aids.

Mr. Norwood first discussed the opaque projector which he called

the workhorse of visual aids.

Advantages:

1. There is a wealth of material readily available and inexpensive:

Pupils' work.

Illustrations, books, magazines, diagrams.

2. It is easy to keep up to date.

3. Can be used for tracing material like maps and puzzles.

4. Has focusing power.

5. Provides a concentration of interest with no distracting elements.

6. Provides variety and change of pace.

Disadvantages:

Room must be very dark.
 Materials cannot be large.

3. Machine gets hot and may burn material or make it flutter and buckle.

4. Projector is heavy and bulky.

Cost discussed.

How to get teachers to use them.

1. Demonstrate use.

2. Some teachers are afraid of "machinery" so supervisors or principals may see from plan books where the use of a projector could be of definite advantage in a particular project and encourage and help the teacher to use it thus pointing out the effectiveness.

Reading must come through a close relationship between the teacher and the child. Reading is thinking, not mechanical, so visual aids and teaching machines are of value only in reinforcing procedures.

Machines impress the layman but educators need to be cautious to keep them in their place and under control.

Beware of using machines as busy work.

Machines can't teach reading. The problems of the immature reader are comprehension, vocabulary, recall. Machines can improve speed, but cannot solve those problems—may even develop poor reading habits if improperly used.

Description and use of the controlled reader. May help to discourage work by word reading.

Speed can be controlled from 1 to 1,000 words a minute to be increased with the progress of the class.

Comprehension is tested by multiple choice questions on inferences and conclusions as well as main ideas, detail, and vocabulary.

Plea for continuity in the use of the reader all the way through the

school system.

Point made that we must keep on teaching deaf children to read through junior and senior high school and help to explode the theory that they learn to read up through the fourth grade and read to learn after that.

About the fifth grade the child in school leaves the home and the community and moves into the world. There is not the same motivation because the pupil cannot relate the new concepts of familiar experiences. Captioned films may bring these to him because they provide the visual approach as well as the sound as represented in the captions, so building common background for a class of deaf children.

The group saw the captioned film—"Rockets—How They Work" and examined the accompanying teachers' manual offering:

1. Story of the film.

2. Oral commentary as given in the film sound track.

3. Captioned synopsis.

4. Suggestions for using the film.

5. Demonstration materials such as supplementary books, pictures, etc.

6. Suggested vocabulary.

7. Important concepts to look for.

8. Tests of comprehension.

9. Suggestions for correlation with other subject areas. Group was enthusiastic about the potential of captioned films for classroom use and learning situations, as well as entertainment.

It was conceded that commercially produced filmstrips are good so far as content is concerned, but that the language difficulty does not correspond to the interest level.

REPORT ON THE READING RESEARCH WORKSHOP

WORKSHOP XIV-THE ROLE OF READING IN DEVELOPING EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE

(Leader: Ann M. Mulholland, assistant professor of educational audiology, Northwestern University)

(Recorder: Frances I. Phillips, associate professor Gallaudet College)

The interests of the group participants were centered primarily around reading problems related to the background development of the deaf child's language. We said that the relation of speech reading, reading, and the importance of meaningful background experience are of great importance in the final success of deaf children learning to read effectively. No matter how it is accomplished, the background of meaningful language is of much greater importance than how it is acquired. Mr. Parks cited and summarized a study in which he had used a nonoral reading method. He pointed out that uniformity of materials and the amount of preparation necessary made it difficult to apply widely. Since lipreading is the most desirable means of acquiring language for the deaf child if he is to acquire a verbal symbol system, lipreading and speech should certainly be stressed in the early years of the child's life. There is time later to present the printed form. Children who come to school with such a background of language which has been built at home by whatever methods eventually become better lipreaders and readers. However, this was not based on scientific evidence. Mr. Christopolus cited a study being done in the Utah School where a broad background of experience was being stressed and reading skills developed in many ways through initial oral presentation.

The problems of building language patterns through structuring the experience by use of the written form was indicated to be of great importance, since the deaf child does not acquire such a structure casually, as the hearing child does. In all reading, comprehension is of great importance, since this is the real meaning of the reading process. It was suggested that the deaf child may follow a process analogous to that of the hearing child who sounds out unfamiliar words. For the deaf child the process may entail the revisualization of the speech movements of a speaker and subvocalizing the word with kinesthetic clues, both aiding comprehension of the printed word. Reading skills should be taught throughout the grades, for many of these are lost after initial development if they are not continually

Costello's study, which showed the relationship between speech reading and reading skill, was briefly reviewed. The use of the Columbia vocabulary test in recent research projects was also mentioned. A table from Myklebust's recent book, "The Psychology of Deafness," was examined. It showed the great differences in the scores of deaf children and hearing children at the 9-, 11-, 13-, and 15-year-old

levels. These scores indicated that 15-year-old deaf children were making lower scores on the reading test than those made by normally hearing children at the age of 9. Some research in reading, including that of the city of New York Board of Education and the Public School No. 47 study to establish norms for deaf children, was reviewed. References were made to the earlier Pugh study which likewise developed norms for deaf children, but which seem to be infrequently used. It was the opinion of the group, however, that information on reading tests based on norms of a deaf population have merit for purposes of comparing the deaf child in a particular school

to those of establish norms for the national deaf population.

The use of such standardized tests was felt to provide good information as to the child's progress, but question was raised as to the validity of such measures, because considerable guesswork was thought to be included in the process. The point was made that the deaf child, like nature, abhors a vacuum and is compelled to fill in any blank spaces in the test. It was the considered opinion of some that the deaf child guesses more often and differently than the hearing child. This process is in need of study. Amongst reading tests discussed was the possibility of utilizing a nonverbal battery as a predictor of success based on Farrent's unpublished dissertation entitled "A Factorial Analysis of the Intellective Abilities of Deaf Children."

Since reading scores show such serious deficiencies in the deaf child's academic growth, much research is needed if we are to succeed in

improving this important receptive language skill.

WORKSHOP XV-READING FOR THE SLOW LEARNER (ALL LEVELS)

(Leader: Mrs. Bernadette Attleweed, teacher, California School, Berkeley)
(Recorder: Miss Ada Mundinger, teacher, Western Pennsylvania School,
Pittsburgh)

Mrs. Attleweed began the discussion by saying she hoped the group could exchange ideas, methods and ways to help our slow learners who really need it. Slow learners have many problems, frustrations, and emotional difficulties and we must get to the bottom of the problems first, learn to know the child in order to help him learn to read.

Methods, procedures, and materials used with slow classes were discussed. Mrs. Attleweed began by giving a method she used with a group of boys on the first, second, and third grade levels, who had no interest in reading. The opaque projector was used in connection with Reader's Digest—Reading Skill Builders. The boys were asked to show they understood the reading by drawing pictures in their followup work. At first no written language was required. They gradually began to learn to write sentences as they progressed with their reading.

Others in the workshop then gave their methods used to teach stories. A lot of dramatization by either the students or the teachers was used. The importance of teaching practical reading that the children would need was stressed—such as reading ads, job applications, directions, signs, and so forth. It was noted that attention span and interest was short in these children, so stories must be short and on an interest level of the children. Games in which to help the students to read,

build their vocabulary were suggested.

Slow learners must be taught the same things again and again in a variation until they begin to understand as well as to remember. Encouragement—avoiding discouragement—was a great motivation in stimulating a desire in the slow learner to learn to read. It was agreed that history and subjects with too much detail was best avoided. Also, most of the teachers thought short answers to questions would be better than long ones.

Materials—There was an exchange of ideas concerning materials used. It was found that there is very little material available and the teachers must do a lot of work themselves to prepare reading work for a slow class. A list of books and materials used by various teachers was given. The Weekly Reader, which is like a newspaper, was

greatly used.

The group emphasized their desire to obtain materials from each other, and it was felt it would be desirable to have a committee to collect and compile the materials used by all teachers in the group for exchange with one another.

Questions-What mode of communication is used most in the

classroom?

The combined method of writing, talking, signing, and finger spelling was used the most. The best method depended upon individual situations.

Should filmstrips be used to encourage slow learners to read?

Three factors described the best use of filmstrips: helpful if they have captions; should not be used too frequently; vocabulary on the captions should be explained and gone over together.

How much is to be gained by rewriting basic textbooks for the slow

learner?

Discussions showed that a lot can be gained but it was a great deal of work for the teacher.

Can the slow learner be taught to read independently?

The group decided that the child must be made to read by himself because he cannot always depend on others throughout his life. Several ways were given by the teachers that stimulate independent reading. One was to have the children learn to read directions, signs, and practical language; another way was to tell the story up to a certain part then have the children finish it. Some thought that if we leave books in a "library corner" in the room the child will eventually pick up a book or magazine and read. One of the teachers said he would discuss a topic of interest to his class. He would tell the class where to find out more in the library. The class did not look up for more information on this certain topic.

Is there a reading series available suitable for use with slow learn-

ing deaf children?

No one knew of any suitable series that could be used with their classes. Some knew there were some books that could be made or typed out to suit the class.

Some discussion about a course of study for slow learners came up and California as well as Indiana schools have completed one

which may go to print in the fall.

It was again emphasized that some way should be found to have a committee to compile materials from all teachers of slow learners, which can be used to trade or send out to others in need of them.

OPAQUE PROJECTOR METHOD

This method is profitable when the teacher wishes to control the reading habits of her students; watch for signs of perplexity, poor attention, and the eye movement; help strengthen the comprehension of all; to keep the class together in attacking words by context. It is sometimes helpful where the teacher wishes to explain a phrase or a paragraph that is difficult. An overuse or an ill use of this method can cause distraction, boredom, or disinterest for reading.

Procedure

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Place the reading material in short units in the projector with a full page reflecting on the screen. It is advisable to type the page or unit on a sheet of paper 8½ by 11 inches. Keep a margin of 6 by 8 inches. Clip or paste the sheet of paper on a piece of cardboard. Use 14 point English type or pica type for they enable the student to read with ease and less eyestrain. Have the students move closer to the screen where you can watch their eye movements.

1. Select a reading material. If it is a long one, divide it into

shorter units. Try to type it out.

2. Select words the students do not know. Discuss their definitions and how one uses them in sentences.

3. Read the story together on the screen.

4. Attack the words by context.

5. Discuss the story and the idea of each unit.

6. Have some followup work ready.

(a) Dramatize the story.
(b) Draw pictures to illustrate various facts or actions involving the characters.

(c) Multiple-choice sentences.

(d) Vocabulary drill.8. After a story or few units have been read and discussed, have an overall quiz of the main ideas.

(a) Illustrations.

(b) Multiple-choice sentences.

(c) Vocabulary drill.

TUESDAY, JUNE 27, 1961

RESEARCH

Lindstrom Hall West—Section Leader: Stephen P. Quigley, Ph. D., U.S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.

9-10:15 a.m.

"Use of Computers in Measuring Hearing Loss," Edgar L. Lowell, Ph. D., John Tracy Clinic, Los Angeles.

Interpreter: Lloyd Ambrosen.

10:15-11:30 a.m.

"Verbal Learning in Children with Reduced Auditory Acuity," John H. Gaeth, Ph. D., Wayne State University, Detroit, Mich. Interpreter: Lloyd Graunke.

1:30-2:30 p.m.

"The Use of Finger Spelling in the Education of Preschool Deaf Children," Marie Meier, Ph. D., Queens College, Flushing, N.Y. Interpreter: Edward Reay.

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2:15-3 p.m.

"Comparison of the Performance of Day Students and Resident Students in Residential Schools for the Deaf," D. Robert Frisina, Ph. D., Gallaudet College.

3-3:45 p.m.

"The Development of Esoteric Communication and the Early Start of Language Teaching," Bernard Th. Tervoort, S.J. Ph. D., Institut voor Doofstommen, St. Michielsgestel: the Netherlands.

Interpreters: Stanley Roth, Wm. McClure, Kenneth Huff.

USE OF COMPUTERS IN MEASURING HEARING LOSS

(EDGAR L. LOWELL, Ph. D., Administrator, John Tracy Clinic, Los Angeles)

Because an understanding of hearing necessarily involves some consideration of brain functioning, there has been some reasonable expectation that the study of the EEG record might yield some assessment of auditory functioning. Pauline Davis reported on the K complex in the EEG wave in response to auditory stimulation as early as 1939. Perl, Golambus, and Glorig reported on several indicators for measuring hearing in the EEG record, and Derbyshire has published a number of papers on this subject. I believe it is fair to say that none of these methods were particularly successful from a clinical standpoint. They all require considerably more experience with the EEG than we are apt to find in most schools for the deaf or speech and hearing clinics.

In many ways the EEG has not lived up to the early optimistic expectations of its users. The reading of an EEG record is at best a highly skilled task which requires considerable experience, with the exception of space occupying lesions, epilepsy, and a number of other conditions, the EEG does not yield as much information as we might hope for.

It may be that the reading of an EEG record is like the story of the little boy who said that he was disappointed in a library book about turtles because it told him more about turtles than he wanted to know. The EEG record may be showing us more information than we want to see, or more than we understand how to interpret. As many believe, the EEG recording which is taken from electrodes on the scalp represents the summation of electrical activity from many parts of the brain. The wiggles that we see on the EEG record represent this summation. This makes it difficult to visually isolate any particular component and relate it to the behavior of the organ-There is good reason to believe that there is a change in the electrical potential in the auditory portions of the brain in response to sound. This can be demonstrated in studies with animals where it is possible to operate and put electrodes directly on the areas involved. In the EEG recording with humans, however, this small evoked potential is combined with electrical activity from all other parts of the brain, and so cannot be visually detected.

A potential solution to this problem of recovering a very small activity in the presence of much larger activity was suggested by Laplace in the 18th century when he proposed a method of averaging which would make it possible to demonstrate a lunar tide in the atmospheric pressure. Averaging theory suggests that if you take repeated measurements of a random function, the average of these measurements

over an infinitely long sample will approach zero. If the function is not truly random, but contains a small buried signal, repeated averaging will emphasize the small regular signal while cancelling out the balance of the random activity. In a sense we can think of the EEG record as a random function, inasmuch as it is not directly correlated in any observable fashion with any of the variables that we

are dealing with.

Figure 1 shows an example of how this might work on an actual EEG record. If we divide the EEG at the midline, horizontally, as I have done, and if we take measurements at regular intervals as indicated by the row of dots, we can see that sometimes the EEG tracing will be above the line, or negative (as this is designated in EEG work), and sometimes it will be below the line, or positive in value. In this fortunate sample we see that five were below the line and four were above. If the function is truly random and the sample is large enough, this will, as it can be mathematically demonstrated, average close to zero. If it fails to, then we can assume we do not have a truly random process.

Now let us look at the situation in which we are attempting to study auditory functioning in the EEG record. It is first necessary to put some form of controlled auditory stimulation into the ear. For a variety of reasons we have used a click. From the animal research we know that a click produces an evoked response which can be measured at various points in the auditory system. In the human EEG, however, this small electrical activity is buried in a much higher amplitude

random activity from other parts of the brain.

The next figure gives us some idea of what this small evoked potential looks like. It has an oscillating waveform with a positive peak around 15–20 milliseconds after a click. The first major negative peak occurs around 30–35 milliseconds, followed by a somewhat slower positive peak at around 50 milliseconds. Repeated measurements of the EGG record in the period between 20 and 45 milliseconds following a click would not approach zero, but instead would begin to approximate the shape of the negative half cycle of the evoked waveform. That is, the larger spontaneous activity would average out and the small individual evoked potentials that occur following each click would begin to approximate the evoked potential waveform as seen in figure 2. The success of the process depends upon the fact that the evoked potential always occurs at the same time after the click. If it were not for this fixed latency, that is, if the auditory potential varied randomly, it, too, would average out to zero.

All of this was known in theory, but until recently there had been little attempt to apply the theory to the analysis of EEG recordings. Dawson in 1954 worked out an electromechanical device for this type of averaging. Suziki and Asawa in Japan, and Pemier in Russia have used a photographic technique, but it was not until developments in the electronic field that a practical application of the theory was

possible.

The previous figure was based on data from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology ARC-1 computer. This is a relatively expensive general purpose computer, and one not readily available for problems of the measurement of hearing. It very rapidly makes the kinds of measurements which were described in connection with the first figure, converts them to digital form, and averages and stores them

over a period of time. It can make 256 measurements following each

click.

To obtain the information potentially available from such a system, but at a cost that would be possible in our work, we have developed a small computer that is less expensive because it takes fewer measurements. Instead of 256 measurements following each click, our computer takes 5. The great stability of the evoked potential made it possible for us to operate with so few measurements. We chose the first negative half cycle, occurring between 20 and 45 milliseconds. Five measurements were taken at 5-millisecond intervals, commencing at 20 milliseconds following this click. At each of these five points the electrical activity was measured for a 2-millisecond period of time. This information from each measurement point was fed to separate analog integrators which function like an adding machine, adding values when the electrical energy was positive, and subtracting them when it was negative. At the end of a predetermined number of clicks, our computer shuts itself off and reads out a record which indicates the value of all of the stored measurements in each of the five analog integrators. The readout is on an Esterline Angus recorder.

The process is viewed as similar to winnowing wheat from chaff, and the computer is named Vannus from the Latin term for the fan used in winnowing. In order to differentiate this procedure from the more elaborate digital methods or the photographic techniques, this process is referred to as evannation (a winnowing out) or, more properly, because of the timelocked property of the evoked response, tem-

poral evannation.

Our early research efforts were carried out with college students with normal hearing. In this study we administered clicks at different loudness levels to the right ear. The clicks were administered at 80-millisecond intervals or 12½ per second. We picked up one channel of the EEG with the active electrode in the left occipital region, and the reference electrode in the left temporal region. A midline frontal ground electrode was used, all three being held in place by an elastic strap. The EEG was taken with the subject's eyes open. This is a positive factor, particularly when testing younger children as movement artifacts do not destroy the value of the record.

As indicated before, measurements were taken at 20, 25, 30, 35, and 40 milliseconds. Figure 3, which is taken from an article in the June issue of the Journal of Speech and Hearings Research, illustrates the results from 54 subjects who were administered 1,024 clicks at each of the indicated stimulus intensity levels. At zero decibel, or their own threshold, the pattern does not exhibit the first negative half cycle of the evoked potential. At 5 decibels, however, which is the next line above, it begins to show, and increases in amplitude with successive increases in intensity up through 30 decibels. In our opinion, this is a rather remarkable demonstration of the linearity of the evoked cortical response with the subjective loudness of the stimulus. It represents a type of regularity which heretofore has been largely unknown in EEG work.

To be certain that these findings were not artifacts, another series of clicks were administered at much lesser intensity. The results from 1,024 clicks at intensities below the subjective threshold level are shown in figure 4. A similar set of runs when no stimulus was administered, but on the same gating and averaging procedure, was

carried out, as shown in figure 5. Taken together, these indicate that the previous results were undoubtedly not due to artifacts, but represent exciting new information about the functioning of the auditory cortex.

To further reduce the subjectivity of interpreting the computer record, the following response criterion was established. The average evoked waveform must show a 10-unit change in a negative direction between 25 and 30 milliseconds, and a positive change between 35 and 40 milliseconds. Responses not meeting this criterion are not considered a positive indication that the subject heard the clicks at that intensity level. The percentage of responses reaching this criterion ranges from 43 percent at 10 decibels to 82 percent at 30 decibels. The silent controls and the subthreshold runs averaged 15 percent errors or "false positives." These results were based on averaging When 3,750 responses were averaged (taking ap-1.024 responses. proximately 5 minutes), the percent of responses reaching the response criterion increases to 64 percent at 10 decibels and 91 percent at 30 decibels, while the error responses fall to 13 percent. We are thus in a position to specify, within limits, how long we must average if we wish to obtain a given degree of accuracy.

There are a number of other studies that are underway or have just been completed that suggest some of the very exciting new information we are able to obtain with the computer. For example, we

are currently exploring the use of a filtered click.

The filter is set at I octave with a center at our usual audiometric measurement frequencies. The intention was to compare the computer responses with those obtained by traditional audiometric procedures. The results when the click was administered at 30 decibels to 10 normal hearing subjects showed the results seen in figure 6; 1,000 4,000, and 8,000 cycles per second gave the expected results, while 250 and 500 cycles per second did not. An explanation of this result from animal work was just published by Small and Gross in the April 1961 issue of the Journal of Auditory Research, which suggests that the amount and area of the cortex aroused by a sound depend in part on the time it takes that sound to come on, or what is called rise time. The evoked potential requires a fairly sharp rise time, and the slower rise time produced by the 250 and 500 cycles per second filters causes a smaller part of the cortex to be activated.

There are several other studies underway utilizing binaural and monaural stimulation, systematic variation of the electrode placement, and an exploration of the evoked waveform earlier and later than the 20- and 40-millisecond period that we have been studying. All promise increased understanding of auditory functioning through this new technique. Of even greater interest to us, however, is the

work with deaf children.

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Our systematic attempts to date have been with hearing subjects while we were in the process of exploring the procedure and getting all of the "bugs" out of the system. Our work with deaf children has been limited. The results we do have, however, indicate that the computer works equally well with the deaf. The unfiltered clicks appear to agree best with the traditional audiometric results at the lower frequencies. A systematic study of deaf children enrolled in the clinic is currently underway.

Our primary interest in developing the computer was to study those children with suspected central involvement. As many of you know, we were disillusioned in our attempts to use the GSR as a diagnostic tool in a research study, and in casting about for some other technique we became interested in the computer. It is our hope that in those cases of central deafness, or at least in those with retrocochlear involvement, we may see some slightly different pattern in the evoked response. This is a speculation at this point, but plausible enough to keep us highly interested in tomorrow's results.

In conclusion, I think it would be well to again acknowledge the great excitement we have felt in being able to utilize an old idea by applying some relatively new techniques in the electronics field, and to apply them in a modest enough fashion to make similar computers a reasonable instrument for many audiologic centers. We anticipate that these computers will become a fairly widely used addition to our battery of diagnostic tests.

I would like to acknowledge the great debt which we owe to Prof. Walter Rosenblith of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Communications Biophysics Group, and to his colleagues, who provided great help and encouragement in the development of this project. Without their help and the untiring efforts of our own computer group, including Delphi Alvig Ballinger, Robert Ballinger, Georgina Rushford, Edward Warburton, and Carol Troffer Williams, this work would not have been possible.



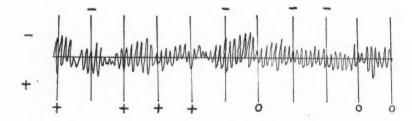
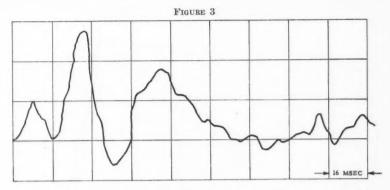


FIGURE 1.—Sample of EEG recording showing how regular measurements of random activity are obtained in averaging process.



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Figure 2.—Sample of average evoked responses to auditory stimulation taken on MIT ARC-1 computer.

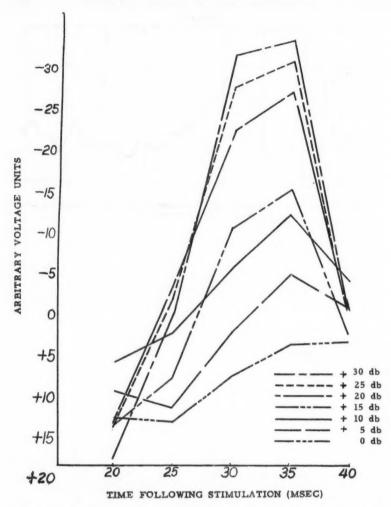
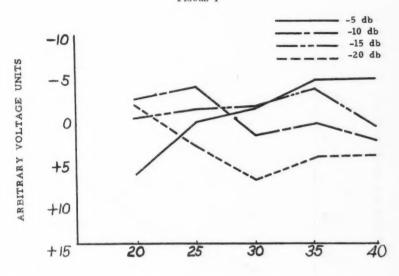


Figure 3.—Average of 54 normal hearing subjects; 1,024 monaural clicks administered to right ear at 30 decibels sensation level at 80-millisecond intervals to each subject. EEG electrodes left occipital and left temporal.

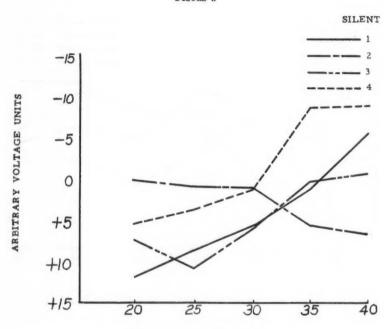
FIGURE 4



TIME FOLLOWING STIMULATION (MSEC)

FIGURE 4.—Average evoked response pattern at four subthreshold (re subjective click threshold) intensity levels.

FIGURE 5



TIME FOLLOWING STIMULATION (MSEC)

FIGURE 5.—Average evoked response pattern for four silent control periods.

FIGURE 6

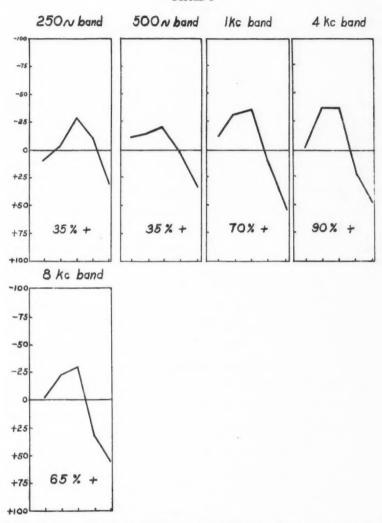


FIGURE 6.—Average evoked responses using filtered click; 10 subjects, each administered 3,750 clicks.

VERBAL LEARNING AMONG CHILDREN WITH REDUCED HEARING ACUITY

(JOHN H. GAETH, Ph. D., Wayne State University, Detroit, Mich.)

This research was supported by the U.S. Office of Education as project No. 289.

INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVES

There is evidence in the literature that a multisensory presentation of material for verbal learning is superior to a presentation through only one modality. Specifically, a combined auditory-visual presentation is considered superior to a presentation that is either auditory or visual alone. However, the effect of bisensory presentation is likely to be different when one sensory modality is deficient. Although educators of the hard of hearing and deaf have reported improvement in the reception of communication, in the development of speech, and in the growth of academic achievement when amplified auditory stimulation is part of the teaching program, there is little evidence in the literature of careful validation of such statements.

One attempt to carry out an experimental study of bisensory versus unisensory presentation in hard of hearing and deaf children was made in 1952 by Graunke. The purpose of the study was to compare performance on a verbal learning task presented visually to performances on the same task presented visually and auditorily. On the task studied, the bimodal presentation was not superior to the visual presentation.

The present project was proposed as a study of one type of verbal learning in children. The primary purpose was to investigate the relationships between performance on the task and the method of presenting the task. The learning task was paired-associate word presenting the task. lists, in which the subject learned to anticipate the response member of the pair before it was revealed to him. The methods of presenting the paired-associate lists were auditory (A), visual (V), and combined auditory-visual (C). Subconditions were used in which groups of subjects learned two lists, the first presented by A, V, or C and the second presented by A, V, or C. The subjects were normal and hard-of-hearing children in several age-grade groups.

Answers were sought to the following types of questions: (a) Is the sensory presentation method a variable that affects

the rate of learning?

(b) Are there differences in retention ability related to the method in which the material was originally presented for learning?

(c) What are the effects of learning with one method of presentation upon subsequent learning with the same or another

method of presentation?

(d) In what ways are the performances of hearing-handicapped children different from the performances of normalhearing children?

(e) What are the relationships between the method of stimulus

presentation and the age or ability of the subjects?

PROCEDURES

A total of 19 lists of paired-associate words were used in the project. Eighteen of the lists were constructed using three- to five-letter monosyllabic words not above the fourth grade reading vocabulary. The remaining list was made up of four-letter nonsense syllables. The number of word pairs used in a list varied from 4 to 10. Nine of the lists were standardized for equivalence of performance when presented either through audition or vision to fourth grade children. The purpose of the standardization procedure was

to prepare for repeated measurements when necessary.

Three basic pieces of apparatus were used to present the lists of word pairs to the subjects. A Patterson memory drum was used for the visual condition. An Ampex, model 601, tape recorder with a headset was used for the auditory presentation. An Ampex, model 601-2, tape recorder and an original electronic memory drum were used for the combined condition. The electronic drum was controlled by tone signals recorded on one-half of the magnetic tape; the paired-associate words were recorded on the other half. With this apparatus the visual and the auditory components of the combined method of presentation were always synchronous. In one study a group learning situation was utilized; the lists were presented visually with a Bell & Howell slide projector and auditorily with the Ampex tape recorder and a speaker.

The subjects in the study were children from the schools in the Detroit metropolitan area. Normal-hearing subjects were selected from the 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 10th grades. Hard-of-hearing subjects in the same grade range were selected from the special programs for the hard-of-hearing and deaf. Children in the experimental teaching program ranged in age from 2 to 16 years. All subjects were naive

with regard to the verbal learning task.

All subjects were tested individually except for the one group experiment. Learning of the paired-associate lists was by the anticipation method. Three general measures of learning were used: (1) number of trials to a criterion; (2) number of correct responses over a given number of trials; and (3) retention scores. Throughout the study a trial was defined as one presentation of each word pair on the list. Record was kept of all responses, correct and incorrect.

RESULTS

A total of approximately 2,500 subjects were used in the standardization procedures and in the 8 experiments conducted for the project. A total of eight experiments were carried out, but only four

are being presented here.

1. Experiment I consisted of nine subconditions, in which a subject learned a four-pair list by one of three methods of presentation (A, V, or C) and an eight-pair list by one of three methods of presentation (A, V, or C). A total of 270 fourth grade children were selected and assigned at random, 30 each, to the 9 subconditions. Retention

scores were obtained on each subject 1 week after his learning session. The findings of the experiment were as follows:

(a) The 90 subjects who learned the four-pair list visually required fewer trials to complete the task than did the subjects who learned the list with either the auditory or combined presentation.

(b) There was no significant difference between the mean number of trials required to learn the eight-pair list when presented visually or auditorily; this finding was suspected since the list had been standardized using these two conditions.

(c) The performance with the combined method of presentation was not superior to either the auditory or the visual methods

(d) There was some evidence that changing the method of presentation between the four- and eight-pair list resulted in a poorer performance when learning the eight-pair list, but the evidence is considered inconclusive until further research is done.

(e) Retention scores were generally equivalent among the nine subconditions of the experiment; if anything, retention scores were best when the material to be learned had been presented auditorily.

2. Experiment II was designed to determine if marked differences in centile rating on Raven's progressive matrices were related to differences in performances on the verbal learning task. Fourth grade children were selected. Five subconditions, A-A, V-A, V-V, A-V and C-C, were used. In this experiment 10 trials were given for the first list; the second list was learned to the criterion of 1 perfect trial. The first letter designated the method of sensory presentation on the first list, and the second letter designated the presentation method for the second list. Analyses were carried out on the scores obtained from the second list only. Eight children served as subjects for each subcondition in both centile groupings. The results of the experiment were as follows:

(a) When the means for the subconditions were pooled, there was no difference in the numbers of trials required to learn the eight-pair list for the two centile groups.

(b) Within the high centile group there were no significant

differences among the subconditions.

(c) Within the low centile group there were significant differences among the subconditions; the subjects assigned to C-C and A-A performed best while the subjects assigned to V-V and A-V performed poorest.

(d) The subjects in the high centile group had better retention scores than the subjects in the low centile group when the scores

were pooled for the subconditions.

3. Experiment III was designed to extend the study of paired-associate verbal learning to grades lower and higher than the fourth grade. The five subconditions described under experiment II were used. Seventy-five children from each of the second, third, seventh, and tenth grades served as subjects. The main findings of the experiment were as follows:

(a) When subconditions were pooled, the performance improved from grade to grade from the 2d to the 10th, although most adjacent grades were not significantly different from each

other.

(b) In all grades the subjects required fewer trials to learn the second list under subcondition A-A; the change in method of sensory presentation between the two lists was associated with poorer performances.

(c) There were no significant differences in the performances

for subconditions V-V and A-V.

(d) When both learning tasks were A, V, or C, and the scores were pooled by grades, there were no significant differences among

the methods of presentation.

The grade by condition interaction term was significant; grades 2 and 3 performed poorest on the visual presentation while the highest grades tended to perform about equally well on the conditions.

(e) Subjects learning with the combined presentation did not

show superior performances.

(f) Retention scores were not significantly different among the

conditions nor among the grades.

4. In experiment IV the subjects were hard-of-hearing children with varying levels of hearing acuity. Five hearing-level groups were used: 16-30 decibels, 31-45 decibels, 46-60 decibels, 61-75 decibels, and 76-90 decibels. Because the number of children available to use as subjects was limited, each one learned three eight-pair lists to the criterion of one perfect trial, one each by A, V, and C. The order of learning the lists used and the order of utilizing the sensory presentation methods was counterbalanced. The results of the experiment were as follows:

(a) With the combined and visual methods of presentation the hard-of-hearing subjects performed almost as well as the normal

fourth-grade children.

(b) The performances, when the lists were presented auditorily, were poorer than had been expected—subjects in the two most severe hearing-loss groups were unable to learn the list, and the subjects in all groups required the greatest number of trials to learn the lists under this condition.

(c) There was no evidence that the performances of the hardof-hearing subjects were better with the combined condition than

with the visual condition.

CONCLUSIONS

The study has made several basic contributions to the psychology of learning, particularly as it applies to children. The main contributions may be summarized as follows:

(a) A new electronic memory drum was developed that permits greater flexibility in the presentation of rote learning ma-

terial than has been available in the past.

(b) Rote paired-associate learning was shown to be a practical procedure for studying one aspect of learning in children,

(c) Data were gathered on the learning of meaningful pairedassociate lists in large numbers of children of school age.

(d) Comparisons were made among rote learning conditions wherein the methods of sensory presentations were varied.

(e) Comparisons were made among the performances of

normal-hearing and hard-of-hearing children.

The project represented an initial attack upon the problem of understanding how children use audition and vision in learning verbal material and how hearing loss affects the process.

"THE ROLE OF NONVERBAL SYMBOLS IN THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF"

(MARIE MEIER, Ph.D., Queens College, Flushing, N.Y.)

The U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, has agreed to contribute \$47,000 to Queens College to enable us to explore, objectively, alternate procedures on language de-

velopment in profoundly deaf babies.

The aim of the research is to provide deaf babies and their parents with a means of satisfactory communication among themselves. The study is based on the assumption that deaf children, who acquire a symbolic visual language between the ages of 11/2 and 51/2 years at the rate and in the manner that hearing children acquire a symbolic verbal language, will show a more normal mental, emotional, and social development than those who, because of the nature of the spoken word, are deprived of symbol communication until they have passed the years that are considered most important for language development. The second assumption is that the deaf child, who has a symbol language (finger talking), will be able to learn another symbol language (speech) more easily than if he had no symbol language to start with.

The research design calls for setting up two groups of 25 children each. In group I (the experimental group), the children will start off with a nonverbal symbol language which they will acquire from their parents and they will be expected to use this language for all communication. The nonverbal symbols will consist of finger movements that represent the letters of the alphabet. After the children have learned to talk with their fingers, they will be taught speech, speech reading, and auditory recognition. Individual therapy will be provided either at home or at Queens College for as many hours a week as the youngster can profit from instruction. In group II (the control group), the children will start off immediately with speech, speech reading, and auditory recognition. The language development of the children in both groups will be checked periodically.

Eligibility requirements for the children in both the experimental and control groups are as follows: (1) hearing impairment of 80 decibels or greater in the range from 500 cycles per second to 4,000 cycles per second, (2) IQ normal or better, (3) chronological age, 18 months to 5½ years, (4) language achievement, less than average 21/2-year-old hearing child, (5) normal vision, (6) no serious emotional disturbance, (7) no obvious motor impairment, (8) hearing parents. For the experimental group, the parents must be willing to cooperate to the extent of learning and using finger talking in the

presence of the deaf child.

COMPARISON OF THE PERFORMANCE OF DAY STUDENTS AND RESIDENT STUDENTS IN RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS, FOR THE DEAF

(D. ROBERT FRISINA, Ph. D., 1 director, Hearing and Speech Center, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.)

INTRODUCTION

The research reported in this paper attempted to study the effects of institutionalization on the psycho-educational development of deaf children. Studies of infant isolation in hearing children have suggested that institutionalization is detrimental to the development of the child. If similarities exist between this type of institutionalization relating to infant isolation and the practice of segregating deaf children in residential schools, then it could be expected that the residential environment might retard the development of deaf children. This study investigated the problem by assessing two equated groups of deaf children in residential schools. The control group consisted of 120 day students in residential schools, and the experimental group consisted of 120 resident students in the same schools. The two groups were equated on a number of variables in order to insure that a major difference between them was in environment after class hours, i.e., with the day students returning home each night and the resident students remaining at school.

INSTITUTIONALIZATION

Institutionalization traditionally has involved isolation of children from parents with subsequent care of such children within institutions. As the term has been used, this isolation usually is permanent or of long-term duration, such as orphaned children reared in orphanages rather than for example, foster homes. A number of investigators have claimed that this isolation from parents or parent-figures results in retardation in many areas of development.

The major evidence pertaining to this problem has been summarized by Bowlby (2) and by Stone (12). Both reviews arrive at the same general conclusion: institutionalization is detrimental to the development of children. Institutionalization appears to affect many areas of development, but apparently is most damaging to personality. However, most studies seem to indicate that there is a critical period during which isolation produces the most severe effects. Bowlby (2)

states:

The evidence suggests that three somewhat different experiences can each produce the affectionless and psychopathic character:

(a) Lack of any opportunity for forming an attachment to a mother-figure during the first 3 years (Powdermark, Bender, Lowrey, Goldfarb);
(b) Deprivation for a limited period—at least 3 months and probably

¹ This paper is based on a study which was initiated by Stephen P. Quigley, Ph. D., and conducted jointly. This research project was supported in part through a grant from the U.S. Office of Education.

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more than 6—during the first 3 or 4 years (Bowlby, Spitz, and Wolf); and (c) Changes from one mother-figure to another during the same period (Levy and others) (p. 47).

This critical period is of importance when we attempt to relate studies of infant isolation to the practice of providing residential school facilities for the education of certain types of children, such as the blind, the deaf, and the mentally retarded. It has been argued that the segregation of children in such facilities will produce the same type of effect as cited in Bowlby and in Stone. It is not routine practice, however, at least in the case of deaf children, for them to enter residential schools as resident students prior to the age of 5 or 6 years. This casts some doubt on the applicability of the studies of infant isolation to the education of deaf children in residential facilities.

Not only does the segregation of deaf children from their families not take place during the crucial early years, but it rarely is permanent or of long-term duration since the children usually return home during vacations and often are visited at the schools by their families. In considering the isolation imposed by residential school education, it also is necessary to consider the isolation imposed by deafness. It is not impossible that deaf children may, in many instances, be more isolated among their families and hearing community than in a school where they can learn to communicate more readily with others.

The studies cited by Bowlby and by Stone generally attribute the ill effects of infant isolation to emotional deprivation as the result of the absence of a mother-figure. Dennis (5) proposes a different view. He made several developmental measures of children in three different Iranian institutions. In two of these institutions, children were exceedingly retarded in their motor development. In the third, little retardation was present. In the third institution, modern methods of child care were practiced and attendants were trained to give as much attention as possible to each child. In the other two institutions fewer and more poorly trained attendants were available and little attention was given to behavioral development. Dennis interprets his findings in view of the different practices of the institutions to mean that the retardation of subjects in two of the institutions was due to the restriction of specific kinds of learning opportunities. In the light of the findings, he questioned that retardation resulted primarily from emotional factors.

It is of some importance in considering the case of residential schools for the deaf whether the retardation resulting from infant isolation is due to emotional deprivation or to restricted learning opportunities. It is likely that emotional deprivation could be remedied only by the child's remaining with his parents, whereas the environment can usually be modified to provide enrichment of learning opportunities.

THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF DEAF CHILDREN

The term "institutionalization" as used here refers only to the school as a substitute for the family. For a variety of reasons, mostly relating to the comparatively small number of deaf children in the total population, most deaf children residing outside metropolitan areas in the United States attend residential schools. In this sense the school serves as a substitute for the family and is concerned with the

total psychosocial development of the child as well as with his educational development. As discussed in the preceding section, studies with hearing children reared in institutions of various types indicate that separation from the family can result in effects which are detrimental. There is some question, however, of the applicability of this

conclusion to residential schools for the deaf.

Many of the studies of hearing children have used those who were orphaned or separated from their families by a major catastrophe such as war. A number of the studies apparently indicate that such separation must take place very early in life (before the age of 3 years seems to be the most critical period) and be permanent, or of long-term duration, for the effects of institutionalization to become apparent. Furthermore, the institutions involved often were orphanages where the emphasis was on custodial care. None of these conditions

appears to apply wholly to residential schools for the deaf.

Most schools for the deaf do not accept children as resident students before the age of 5 or 6 years. The separation from the family is not permanent and probably cannot be considered long term in duration since children spend holidays and vacations at home and often are visited by their families at the school. Furthermore, these schools are concerned primarily with the educational, vocational, and psychosocial development of the child and custodial care is simply a necessary condition imposed by the residential situation. Nonetheless, the child is separated from his family to a greater extent than if he attended a day school, and it is a legitimate and important question to ask if this separation has ill effects. This is the question the present study attempted to investigate.

Some studies have been conducted in the past which compared children in day schools with children in residential schools for the deaf. Such a design, however, does not isolate the variable of institutionalization well enough to allow its effects to be studied. There are many differences between day schools and residential schools other than that the children in day schools live at home and the children in residential schools usually live at school, and many of these factors are difficult

to control.

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Perhaps the largest scale study of this type is that of Upshall (15). In 1924–25 the National Research Council conducted a survey of the psycho-educational development of 4,432 children in 42 schools for the deaf throughout the United States (15). From these data Upshall derived hypotheses regarding differences between children who attended day schools for the deaf and those who attended residential schools. He used all children for whom complete data were available from the National Research Council study. This involved comparison of the functioning of 311 day school children with the functioning of 1,470 children in residential schools.

Upshall summarized the arguments in favor of institutions as follows:

in the institution the children * * * may be able to get, outside of school hours, a part of the education which the hearing child so naturally acquires, for, in an institution, learning continues outside the classroom as well as within (p. 16).

He reasoned from this that children in institutions should have progressed more, educationally, than children who go to day schools for only a few hours a day. In his analysis of the data obtained by the National Research Council's study, Pintner (9) found the reverse to be true. Children who attended day schools had significantly higher scores on the Pintner educational survey test than those who attended institutions. Pintner also found, however, that children in day schools had higher intelligence, more residual hearing, and lost their hearing at a later average age than children in institutions. Since these factors could account for the obtained differences in educational achievement, Upshall attempted to eliminate their effects. He was able to match 83 children from the day schools with 83 children from the institutions on the above factors. Even when so matched, the day school children still had significantly higher educational achievement than the institutional children. He concluded that the day schools were achieving better educational results than the institutions.

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He pointed out that his study could not provide an explanation for these differences. The study showed only that the differences existed at the time of the study and were statistically significant by his procedures of analysis. Upshall indicated that the differences might be due to variations in efficiency of teaching between the two types of schools or to the effects of institutionalization.

A more recent study in this area is that of Templin (14), who investigated the effects of (a) hearing loss and (b) institutionalization on the reasoning ability of children. She used several groups of subjects: among those she included were one group from a residential school for the deaf, a second group from a day school for the deaf, and a third group consisting of institutionalized children with normal hearing. Intercomparisons among these groups on several tests of reasoning ability allowed Templin to determine the effects of the two variables, hearing loss and institutionalization. She stated that—

the hypothesis that restriction of the environment will result in lower scores on the reasoning tests is largely supported for the intrinsic factor of hearing loss, and largely rejected for the extrinsic (p. 131).

This study represents a significant advance over studies which merely compared day schools and residential schools. The use of a control group of institutionalized, normally hearing children permits some isolation of the variable of institutionalization. It should be pointed out, however, that there are some disadvantages to such a control group. Children with normal hearing who are institutionalized often are atypical in comparison with noninstitutionalized children and their separation from family is not necessarily comparable to the separation imposed on children in residential schools for the deaf.

The present investigation attempted to isolate the factor of institutionalization in such manner that its effects on the psychoeducational development of deaf children could be studied with minimal contamination by other variables. At the time the study was planned, there were approximately 14,000 children in residential schools for the deaf in the United States (1). Among these 14,000 children there were approximately 1,200 who attended the residential schools as day students. These day students form the essential control for the study. They are children whose families live close enough to a residential school that the children can return to their homes after class hours. The factor of institutionalization can be isolated to

an extent by using the day students in a number of residential schools as control subjects against whom to compare the performance of resident students in the same schools. Since the two groups of children, day students and resident students, attend the same schools and presumably are exposed to similar educational procedures, a condition which differs between them is that of institutionalization. If these two groups then can be equated on such factors as sex, chronological age, length of time in school, intelligence, type of hearing loss, degree of hearing loss, and age of onset of hearing loss, institutionalization should be the major difference between them.

A residential school for the deaf in this study is defined as a daily full-time residential environment throughout the school year; that is, an educational setting which provides both an academic program and postacademic hours boarding facilities. The student receiving care under these circumstances is herein referred to as a "resident The student receiving only the academic portion of this program in the same institution, while living at home during the postacademic hours, is herein referred to as a "day student."

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of institutional environment on the psychoeducational development of deaf children, through the comparison of equated groups of day students and resident students in a number of residential schools for the deaf. On the basis of studies of hearing children, it was hypothesized that the institutionalization of deaf children would result in an impoverishment of the psychological environment which would be reflected in lowered performance. The types of performance selected for study were communication ability, educational achievement, and psychosocial adjustment. The specific hypotheses tested were:

1. Resident students in residential schools for the deaf are less proficient in their ability to communicate in the English lan-

guage than day students in the same schools.

2. The educational achievement of resident students in residential schools for the deaf is significantly lower than the educational achievement of day students in the same schools.

3. The psychosocial adjustment of resident students in residential schools for the deaf is poorer than the psychosocial adjustment of day students in the same schools.

SELECTION AND DESCRIPTION OF SCHOOLS

Six schools listed in the January 1958 issue of the American Annals of the Deaf as public residential schools for the deaf participated in the study. Three of the schools employ the combined system where both oral and manual classes are present on the same campus. Two of the other schools employ the combined method for all students beyond the primary level. In this method, students are instructed by the simultaneous use of speech and finger spelling. The remaining school uses primarily oral methods of instruction. In all participating schools, however, including the oral school, manual communication generally was allowed after school hours when such children resided in the schools.

The 6 participating schools were selected from among a group of 13 which had expressed willingness to participate in the project. These 13 schools were considered on the basis of having 25 or more day students enrolled. A questionnaire was completed by each school stating the number of day students. From the information obtained the 6 participating schools were selected primarily on the basis of having 20 or more day students who met the established criteria. Consideration also was given to including schools representing the three major types of schools and to providing as wide geographical representation as possible.

SELECTION AND DESCRIPTION OF SUBJECTS

Within each of the 6 participating schools, all day students were identified who met the established criteria of having a sensori-neural hearing loss, of having a hearing loss of 75 decibels or more in the better ear averaged across the frequencies 500, 1,000, and 2,000 cycles per second, who suffered hearing impairment before the age of 3 years, had no disability other than deafness, and were at least 11 years old at the time of testing. The data on these variables were obtained from school records. With the control group of day students thus identified, an equated group of resident students was sought. All resident students meeting the population criteria were identified from school records. Each day student then was matched individually with a resident student in the same school on sex, chronological age within 6 months, and on number of years in school within 6 months. Where more than one resident student was found to match any given day student, a random selection was made from the possible choices. In one school it was necessary to match on a group basis rather than individually. A total of 120 day students, 67 male and 53 female, and 120 resident students, 67 male and 53 female were selected in the 6 participating schools.

The two groups of students identified by these procedures formed the sample for the present study. Table 1 gives the descriptive data for the sample.

Table 1.—Scores on control variables for day and resident students

Statistie	Number of students	Time in school (months)	Chronolog- ical age (months)	Hearing loss (decibels)	Age of onset of hearing loss (months)	Intelligent quotient
Md 1	120 120	107. 92 105. 76 31. 17 34. 20	167. 06 168. 66 28. 23 27. 98 <1	85. 76 86. 43 9. 75 10. 51	5. 83 3. 68 10. 06 7. 20 1. 90	101. 34 102. 88 14. 07 14. 21

Md—mean for day students.
 Mr—mean for resident students.
 t*—0.05, 1.98.

Data was obtained from school records for the variables of chronological age (CA), length of time in school, degree of hearing loss in the better ear (HL), and age of onset of hearing loss (AOHL). It was decided in advance that IQ would be measured by the Chicago nonverbal examination. Where this test had been administered by the school, the school's score was used. Where this test had not been administered previously by the school, it was administered as part of the testing program of the present study. Chicago nonverbal scores were obtained for 225 students. For 15 other students, WISC performance scale scores were used from the school records. This was

made necessary by limitations on testing time.

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es rThe validity of using WISC performance scale scores for 15 students was checked by correlating WISC performance scale scores with Chicago nonverbal scores in 1 school. The psychologist in this school had previously obtained scores on the 2 tests for 117 students. He found the means to be 96.32 on the Chicago nonverbal and 96.81 on the WISC performance scale. The correlation between the tests was 0.79. The similarity of the means and the high correlation coefficient were considered sufficient justification for using the WISC performance scale scores for the 15 students where time prohibited administer-

ing the Chicago nonverbal examination.

Thus, the selection procedures used yielded 6 public residential schools for the deaf representing the 3 major systems and methods of instruction (the combined system, the combined method, and the oral method); and 2 groups of students from those schools (120 day students and 120 resident students) who were well equated in educational environment, sex, chronological age, length of time in school, type of hearing loss, degree of hearing loss, age of onset of hearing loss, and intelligence quotient. The assumption was made that the major difference existing between the two groups of students was in environment after class hours. The day students returned to their homes after class whereas the resident students resided in the school at least during the school week. The study was designed to compare the two groups on a number of variables in order to determine if this difference in environment resulted in any significant differences in performance.

PROCEDURE

In this chapter, (a) instruments and techniques for measuring the experimental variables, (b) procedures used in collecting data, and (c) techniques of statistical analysis are described.

MEASUREMENT OF THE EXPERIMENTAL VARIABLES

Although the practice of educating deaf children in residential schools might be detrimental to certain areas of their development, it also is possible that such an environment might be beneficial in other aspects of development. It was decided, therefore, to compare the equated groups of day students and resident students on as broad a sampling of psychoeducational behavior as possible, rather than limit the comparisons to selected variables where the effects of institutionalization might be most expected to have a detrimental effect. The term available for testing influenced, of course, the amount of testing that could be performed. After considering these qualifications and carefully examining the past literature on institutionalization and on the education of deaf students, three broad areas of performance were selected for assessment: communication ability in the English language, educational achievement, and psychosocial adjustment.

Communication ability

Communication ability in the English language, for the purpose of this study, included speech, speech reading, finger spelling, and vocabulary. The qualifying phrase "in the English language" was placed

upon communication ability in order to emphasize that no attempt was made to assess ability to communicate by means of the language of signs. The language of signs is used widely among the deaf of all ages as a means of communication. It is considered by many individuals who are familiar with it to be a language in its own right with a linguistic structure different from that of English and other spoken languages and there is some evidence to support this point of view (11). It would have been of interest to have included assessments of this communication method in the present study, but absence of measuring instruments and other factors, made this impractical.

Speech proficiency was assessed from taped samples of the speech of the subjects. Each subject read the PBF words (phonetically balanced familiar words) for recording. These 50-word units were selected from the original Harvard PB lists and standardized for

use with the deaf by Hudgins (8).

reading test.

Speech reading ability was assessed by means of form A of the Utley test of lipreading (16). Only the sentence portion of this filmed test was used due to realistic limitations on the time that students were available for testing. This portion of the test consists of 31 simple sentences presented on film by a female speaker. There is evidence which indicates that this test is a difficult one for deaf students (6) but it was considered suitable for the present study because of the reported high reliability coefficient, .87 between the two forms, A and B, of the sentence test (16). This was considered of importance since the purpose of the present study was to compare two groups of subjects rather than to establish norms for deaf students on a lip-

Ability to read finger spelling was assessed by means of a specially prepared test since no standard instrument was available in this area. A deaf instructor at Gallaudet College, noted for the clarity of his tinger spelling, was instructed to spell the 31 sentences of form B of the Utley lipreading test at a "comfortable rate of speed." A film was made of this production and formed the finger spelling test. It should be noted that no attempt was made to determine the validity and reliability of this instrument. The original plan of the study did not include finger spelling as a variable, but it was later decided to obtain some data on it as a preliminary to constructing a standardized test of finger spelling for use in future projected studies of manual and oral communication ability among deaf persons. The results obtained from use of this nonstandardized instrument are presented as a matter of professional interest.

Vocabulary development was measured with the word meaning section of the Durrell-Sullivan reading achievement test (7). This reading test has been used in previous studies of the reading ability of the deaf (10). Either the primary or the intermediate form was administered depending on the grade level of the student as determined by school records. The primary form contains 50 words and the intermediate form 75 words. A student's score can be converted to a grade level by the use of tables constructed from data obtained on children in regular public schools.

Educational achievement

All six of the schools selected for the study regularly administer the Stanford achievement test to their students. These schools adminis-

tered the test in the same month of the year. Thus, the data on this test was obtained from the school records for the year preceding tests in other areas. The collection of data for the study was conducted in 1960, but the educational achievement scores were obtained from tests administered by the schools in spring 1959.

Psychosocial adjustment

The original plan of the study involved the administration of the Vineland scale of social maturity. The selection of this test had been based on past studies which indicated that deaf children in residential schools were significantly retarded in social maturity (3) while another study indicated that this was not true for a sample of deaf children in a day school (13). These studies were not readily comparable and so it was not possible to attribute the apparent difference in social maturity to the effects of institutionalization. The design of the present study might have contributed information on this problem; however, it was not possible to administer the Vineland scale of social maturity in the project.

This test is administered by interview with an individual who is familiar with the social life of the child. In the case of the resident students in the present study, this could have been a selected individual residing in the school. In the case of the day students, the individual would necessarily be a parent of the child but these persons were not readily available. The problem is mentioned here since a study concentrating on the area of social maturity and using the design of the present study might be feasible and worthwhile.

After rejecting the Vineland scale of social maturity for the stated reasons, it was decided to use the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman behavior rating schedules. This test has been used in a number of studies of deaf children and has the advantage that it can be administered to the teachers of the children. Both schedule A, the behavior problem record, and schedule B, the behavior rating schedule, were administered. Total scores were obtained for each of the two schedules and for each of the four sections of schedule B dealing with intellectual adjustment, physical adjustment, personal adjustment, and social adjustment.

RESULTS

The experimental variables studied involved three areas: (a) communication abilities which included measures of speech, speechreading (lipreading), finger spelling (manual alphabet) and vocabulary; (b) educational achievement as reflected in the Stanford achievement test; and (c) personal and social adjustment as indicated by the two total scores and four subscores in the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman behavior rating schedules. These 11 experimental variables were analyzed and comparisons were made between the following:

1. Total sample of 120 deaf day students and the 120 deaf resi-

dent students.

Sixty-seven male day students and 67 male resident students.
 Fifty-three female day students and 53 female resident students.

4. Fifty-three female resident students and 67 male resident

tudents

5. Fifty-three female day students and 67 male day students.

TESTING OF HYPOTHESES: COMMUNICATION ABILITY

Data on four experimental variables, speech, speechreading, finger spelling, and vocabulary, are given in this section. With each variable, the five comparisons reported above were made.

Speech

Speech proficiency was assessed by using the PBF word lists. The mean percent of words correctly identified by trained listeners was the factor used in the comparisons. For the total sample, day student means were significantly higher, at the .01 level, than that of the resident students. When sex was held constant, day male student performance was consistent with the total sample, again significant at the .01 level. Day female students were also significantly higher at the .01 level on speech proficiency. This superiority of the day female students is similar to that of the total sample and male student comparisons which suggest a statistically significant difference in favor of the day students in speech proficiency as measured in this study.

Sex differences were also investigated with residence status held constant. The difference between means for male and female resident students was not statistically significant, nor was that for male

and female day students.

Speech reading
Speech reading ability was measured with the sentence test of the
Utley form A filmed test, "How Well Can You Read Lips?" Comparisons were made between day and resident students in the total sample
as well as separately for male and female students. The differences
between means for these three comparisons, all significant at the
0.01 level, were in favor of day students. The data for male and
female students support the consistency of the total sample. These
findings suggest that the resident variable is of significance in view
of the superiority demonstrated by the day students on the speechreading test utilized in this study.

These data were also analyzed to determine whether speech reading varied with sex. In order to do so, the factor of residence was controlled. When male and female resident students were compared, resident females tended to be more proficient, but the difference was not statistically significant (t=1.88; 105=1.98). However, the mean performance of female day students was significantly higher, at the

0.05 level, than that of male day students (t=2.20).

Finger spelling

The ability to read finger spelling was assessed with a filmed test. The sentences used in the construction of this test were those of the Utley form B, which is an alternate form of the form A test of speech reading used in this study. The mean percent of words correctly identified by male and female day and resident students were compared.

No significant differences were obtained between the mean percent of words correctly identified by day and resident students, either for

the total sample or for the male and female subgroups.

Similarly, no significant differences were found between the performance of male and female students in either the day (t-1.98) or

resident (t=1.82) samples. Although the female resident group mean score was higher than that of any other subgroup, it was not significantly different in this respect. The day male and day female comparison did not result in a difference which was statistically significant.

Vocabulary

A test of reading vocabulary was included in the battery as a measure of the ability to understand printed verbal symbols. The word-meaning section of the Durrell-Sullivan reading test was used to assess vocabulary. Comparisons were made between the mean grade equivalent, and resident students.

Although differences were in the predicted direction, day and resident comparisons showed no statistically significant differences.

In the male and female comparisons, female students in both the day and resident samples earned a higher mean vocabulary grade, but the advantage did not reach the 0.05 level of significance.

TESTING OF HYPOTHESES: EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

Educational achievement was measured by the Stanford achievement test. The earned mean grade level was the factor used in the

comparisons.

For the total sample, day students earned higher means as predicted, but the difference was not statistically significant. This suggests that the factor of residence, in and of itself, is not significant insofar as academic achievement is concerned. When male students were compared, the difference was again in the predicted direction but failed to reach statistical significance. Comparison of means of female students was consistent with the total sample and with male students; day female means were higher, but not significantly so.

TESTING OF HYPOTHESES: PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

Schedule A: The behavior problem record of the H.O.W. behavior rating schedule

The results of the comparison between day and resident students suggest that the factor of institutionalization did not adversely affect the resident students. To the contrary, the mean score on schedule A for the day students was higher (indicating more problems) than that of the resident group. This difference, however, was not statistically significant. When male mean scores were compared, a statistically significant difference, at the 0.05 level, emerged in favor of the resident male students. In contradistinction, female day and resident students were rated similar in their behavior as reflected on schedule A of the H.O.W.

Mean scores for male and female resident students were not statistically different. The deviant group on schedule A appears to be the day male students. They were found to be more poorly adjusted than female day students and, as reported above, more poorly adjusted than the resident males. Mean comparisons between male (M=47.07) and female (M=26.81) day students favored the female day students at

the 0.01 level.

Total schedule B: Behavior rating scale of the H.O.W. behavior rating schedules

The only significant difference between mean comparisons under total schedule B, was with the day and resident male students where the direction was in favor of the resident males, significant at the 0.05 level. In a test for significance of difference between means of male day students and that of the male normative group on which schedule B was standardized (N=1473; M=72.4; S.D.=18.4), a t of 3.04 was obtained which was significant at the 0.01 level and the variances were homogeneous. When the normative mean was compared with the mean of the male resident students, no significant difference was found.

In comparing female means with the female normative group of the H.O.W. total schedule B (N=2867; M=69.2; S.D.=17.7), the female resident comparison resulted in a t of 1.86 and the female day comparison resulted in a t of 1.67, neither of which were statistically significant.

The results of the statistical analyses conducted with the data derived from the deaf females utilized in this study suggest: (a) that neither the day nor resident females differ from those with hearing on total schedule B of the H.O.W. behavior rating schedules, and (b) neither do the deaf females differ with type of school placement, i.e., day or resident.

Tests for significance of difference between mean scores of male and female resident students did not reach the 0.05 level. However, mean differences between male and female day students were significant at the 0.01 level in favor of the female students.

The single group which deviated significantly from the normative group and other research subgroups with which it was compared was the day male sample. Apparently, factors have arisen in the home environments of these deaf male adolescents which make it more difficult for them to adjust. The significance of this finding is further emphasized when comparisons with the normative standardization groups of hearing subjects did not reveal differences for the resident male, resident female, and day female students.

Division I.—Division I of the H.O.W. schedule B deals with what the constructors of the scales considered intellectual traits. Comparisons between mean scores of all subgroups failed to reveal any statistically significant differences. Mean scores for the hearing males of the standardization group of division I (N=300; M=18.2; S.D.=5.9) and the means of the two deaf samples (resident males: t=0.55; day males: t=0.84) did not differ significantly on intellectual traits as measured in division I. Mean scores for the hearing females of the standardization group (N=326; M=17.1; S.D.=5.5) did not differ significantly from means of day females (t=1.00) and resident females (t=0.28).

No significant differences were found between means of male and female resident students on division I. However, male day and female day means were significantly different (t=2.63) at the 0.01 level. This difference between male and female day students is similar to that found when male and female standardization subgroups were compared (t=2.41). In both instances, the males apparently had a greater number of less-desirable behavioral traits than did the females.

Division II.—This division is concerned with what the constructors of the scale refer to as physical traits. The resulting lack of significant differences between mean scores suggests that the factor of institutionalization does not adversely affect behavior as measured in this

way.

When tests were made between the mean scores of male and female research subgroups and the normative male and female groups, no significant differences emerged. These results suggest that neither factors of deafness nor residential placement adversely influenced the behavior of male and female students such as those utilized in this study.

No sex differences emerged when the resident male and female and day male and female samples were studied. The absence of a difference between sexes on this variable in either day or residential groups is in contrast to the results of the comparison between normative male and normative female groups in division II where the difference was

significant (t=2.69) at the 0.01 level.

Division III.—This division of schedule B relates to social behavior. Comparisons show that the total day sample was rated as having more problems on this variable than the total resident sample, with a significance level of 0.05. It seems apparent that this difference between total samples can be attributed to the higher mean scores earned by the day male students. A 0.05 level of significance was obtained when day male and resident male groups were compared; the difference was in favor of the resident males who were rated as having a fewer number of problems than the day male students. Since this difference emerged, it was of importance to compare the two male research samples with the normative male group (N=300; M=2214; SD=6.3) on division III. Neither the means nor the variances between the normative male group and the resident deaf males differed significantly. However, the test between the normative male mean and day male mean was significant (t=2.62) at the 0.01 level. This suggests that the day male students not only had a greater number of problems than the resident males, but they also differ significantly from the males with normal hearing on which the scale was standard-

Unlike the day and resident male students, the female students did not differ on the basis of type of residence. Neither means nor variances differed significantly. Both day and resident female groups earned higher means, however, than did the 326 normative females (M=18.2; S.D.=4.9). Comparisons between the normative female mean and the day female mean (t=4.86) and the resident female mean (t=4.42) were both significant at the 0.01 level. These results suggest that, with females, the factor of deafness is more basic on this variable of social behavior than is the type of school attendance.

In comparing performance on the basis of sex, with type of school placement held constant, no significant differences were found among resident students, but a significant difference at the 0.01 level was found between mean scores of male and female day students, in favor of the female group. This finding raises questions pertinent to the day male students, particularly since this group had significantly more problems than the resident males and hearing males as well.

Division IV.—No significant differences were found between the research subgroup on division IV of schedule B, which relates to

emotional traits. Differences were found, however, when male and female groups were compared with the normative data. The total male research sample did not differ (t=1.54) from the normative males (M=21.82; S.D.=6.67) on division IV, but the mean for male day students was significantly different (t=2.95) at the 0.01 level. This tends to give further emphasis to the special problems encountered by male day students. Day and resident females were independently compared with the normative female group (N=326; M=18.1; S.D.=5.8). Differences were obtained between the normative females and the day female (t=3.40) and resident female (t=3.17) groups, both significant at the 0.01 level. These findings suggest again, that deafness possibly plays a more important role in this variable studied than does the type of school placement.

No significant differences were found in comparing male and female students on division IV with type of residence held constant. This absence of difference on the basis of sex between the male and female research groups is at variance, with differences (t=4.46), significant at the 0.01 level, between male and female normative groups.

These findings fail to show significantly adverse effects of institutionalization on behavior as rated on this variable in the study.

DISCUSSION

The major differences which emerged between the day students and the resident students were in speech and speech reading. The scores of the day students were significantly higher than those of the resident students, thus indicating that the day students had better speech and speech-reading ability. This finding is reinforced by the fact that this superiority of day students appeared in each of the six participating schools.

The interpretation of these findings is a matter of considerable interest. They could be interpreted as supporting the hypothesis that institutionalization is detrimental to the development of oral communication ability in deaf children. The problem arises, however, as to exactly what constitutes institutionalization. This was discussed at length in the introduction.

Oralness of environment

It is likely, in view of the success in equating the two groups, that the major difference between them is in environment after class hours, with the day students going home and the resident students remaining in school. It is within this difference in environment, therefore, that the factors producing the differences in speech and speech reading should be sought. One difference between the two environments which immediately suggests itself is what educators of the deaf might term "oralness of the environment" and psychologists might term "practice effect." The resident students in all of the six participating schools usually communicate with each other, and with the persons who care for them in the evenings, to a great extent by means of finger spelling and the language of signs. It is likely that the day students, when they return home, are forced to associate to a greater extent with hearing persons who do not know manual methods of communication. This might force the day students to rely more on oral means of communication. If this were the case, the day students would be forced to practice speech and speech reading to a greater degree than the resident students. This alone could be responsible for the differences

found in speech and speech-reading ability.

It is possible with the data of the present study to perform an indirect test of this hypothesis. Among the 120 day students, there were 16 who had deaf parents. It is likely that these day students would be exposed to a less oral environment at home than the 70 day students who had no deaf members in their families. If the hypothesis concerning the oralness of the environment be true, then the day students with no deaf members in their families should have better oral communication ability than the day students without deaf relatives.

The 16 day students with deaf parents were compared with the 70 day students who had no deaf relatives in their immediate families. No significant differences emerged between the two groups on any of the control variables. Thus, the two groups were alike in chronological age, length of time in school, intelligence, type of hearing loss, degree of hearing loss, and age of onset of hearing loss. They also were alike in that both groups consisted of only day students. The major difference between them appeared to be that the group of 16 had deaf parents and the group of 70 had no deaf relatives in their immediate families.

Table 2.—Comparison of day students with deaf parents and day students with no deaf parents

Statistic	Speech	Finger spelling	Vocabulary
M pd	8. 34	78. 67	5. 01
	19. 47	46. 78	4. 03
	7. 69	21. 17	1. 50
	18. 83	32. 12	1. 41
	3. 76	4. 88	2. 39

M pd means for day students with deaf parents. M npd means for day students with no deaf parents.

t 0.03.

Significant differences emerged between the two groups on several of the experimental variables. As hypothesized, the group with deaf parents had a mean score on speech which was significantly lower than the mean speech score for the group with hearing parents. It appears, therefore, that it is this factor of "oralness of environment" or "practice effect" which accounts for the differences in speech and speech reading ability. It might be argued that this is an effect of institutionalization since it is associated with residential school living, but a counterargument can be made that it is not a necessary effect. The residential school environment possibly could be modified to make it as oral as the home atmosphere provided this were considered desirable. A possible test of such modification would be to compare the speech ability of day students and resident students within the private residential schools which maintain a strictly oral atmosphere within the school at all times. Under such conditions, the after-class hours environment of the resident students should be just as oral as that of the day students and no differences should exist between the two groups in speech. If this were found to be true it would argue against interpretation on the basis of institutionalization, since resident students in the private, oral, residential schools are just as institutionalized as

resident students in public residential schools in the sense that, in both

cases, the school acts as a substitute for the family.

The problem appears to lie with how institutionalization is defined, as was pointed out earlier. If it is defined in terms of emotional deprivation due to absence of a mother figure, then the residential schools for the deaf do not seem to fit the pattern established by Bowlby (2). The children apparently are not separated from the family early enough or long enough for ill effects to appear. If, however, institutionalization is defined in terms of restriction of learning opportunities, as suggested by Dennis (5), then this might explain the findings in speech and speech reading. It appears to be more reasonable to accept Bowlby's definition since it implies a permanency of effect which cannot be completely eliminated by changes within the institution. In view of this, it is possible that residential school living and institutionalization are not the same thing.

An additional test of institutionalization and "oralness of environment" (which has been projected as a continuation of the present study) would be to add a matched group of day school students to the samples of resident students and day students used in the present study. If "oralness of the environment" were important to the acquisition of speech, then it might be hypothesized that the day school students would be most proficient in this area, with the day students next, and the resident students last. This would be based on the assumption that the day school students would have the most oral environment with the day students and resident students following in that order. Such a study, in conjunction with the suggested comparisons within private oral residential schools, might help to definitely identify the reasons for the findings of the present study in speech and speech reading.

Other significant differences are worthy of note. Although the group with deaf parents had much poorer speech than the group with hearing parents, they had significantly higher scores in finger spelling and vocabulary. It should be added that this group also had higher scores in educational achievement although the difference here did not reach statistical significance. The higher scores in finger spelling would be expected since this group with deaf parents would likely be exposed to much manual communication at home. Apparently, however, this use of manual communication also aided them in vocabulary development, although it apparently hindered them in their comparative speech development. It should be pointed out that no significant difference was found between the two groups in speech reading.

These findings are of interest in view of the fact that controversy has existed for many years over the relative merits of manual and oral methods involved in the present study; the data would appear to indicate that this is not an either/or proposition. This might furnish some evidence for the need to investigate the use of combinations of finger spelling and oral methods in educating deaf children.

Institutionalization

The findings in speech and speech reading have been interpreted in terms of practice effect rather than in terms of institutionalization. Since none of the other hypotheses was accepted on the basis of the data, the study provides no evidence that living in residential schools is detrimental to deaf children on the variables measured. These find-

ings support those of Templin (14). It should be pointed out, however, that in vocabulary and educational achievement, the differences in favor of the day students, although not statistically significant, were in the predicted direction.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF ESOTERIC COMMUNICATION AND THE EARLY START OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

(BERNARD TH. TERVOORT, S.J. Ph. D., Instituut voor Doofstommen, St. Michielsgestel, the Netherlands)

There are some fundamental principles on which all educators of deaf children agree. One of them is, that the teaching of language is the center of the whole education from which everything else depends. And another one is the principle that the education has to be as oral as possible. It is not the *oral* which is under discussion any more; it is the possible. Opinions start to diverge as soon as the matter is brought up: how many children, with what kind of background, what kind of intellectual capacity, what age of onset of the deafness, what kind of other handicaps, and so on, can be taught orally.

There is no doubt, I think, in anyone's mind about the vital importance of teaching speech and lipreading to deaf children, so as to enable them to meet the challenge of the hearing world. But there is doubt in many minds about the primary importance of this part of the whole education of the deaf child. One can frequently hear the fol-

lowing slogan: language is the most important, all penetrating, part of our teaching task, and speech and lipreading come secondly, and only where possible. I have to admit that for some external purposes there can be made distinctions between language on the one and speech on the other hand, but I want to point out the basic and functional identity of the two. In this paper, I would like to prove this point from two angles. First, from the analysis of the acquisition of language in normal hearing children, from birth until the third year of life: and secondly by quoting some of the tentative conclusions of a 6year research project I am engaged in for the 3d year now. The analysis of the normal development of language will show us how nature develops speech and language in perfect identity; the discussion of some of my research data will show us how a dichotomy between these two develops in young deaf children. While dealing with all this, I would like to submit some general suggestions for ways of decreasing this dichotomy which are summarized in the second part of my paper's title: "The Early Start of Language Teaching."

There is no doubt in any specialist's mind about the importance of the first years, even the first months, of life. Rather than going into general aspects of this importance, I shall presuppose them and go into the linguistic importance immediately. Four phases of development toward perfect language usage might be distinguished. The word "phase" is used purposely here to stress the fact that we are not dealing with periods which follow each other, but with a growing phenomenon that goes on growing and keeps the profits and benefits of the foregoing stadia. The four phases are: the babbling phase, the adaptation phase, the single-word phase, and the language phase.

Every child gives voice, from birth on. From physiological, in a very primitive way, this sound giving soon becomes emotionally, and after only a few weeks it also becomes a primitive means of communication. Baby is hungry, wet, or otherwise experiencing unpleasant feelings, and therefore he cries. The consequence usually is a stopping of the unpleasantness, and pretty soon baby is conditioned to cry as a distress signal. Crying, however, is not the only thing good babies do: they like to make all kind of noises, happy, content, discontent, hungry, pleasant, or just for the fun of it. This type of sound making is called babbling. Every baby babbles, the deaf ones too; there is no sound in the world that a baby cannot babble, although every individual baby has his own gamma; finally: There is no connection between the language of the world around and the sounds, the babbling baby makes. This is the first phase, in which there is no adaptation of the sounds, in which nothing sounds different in Greece, Iran or the U.S.A., or in a deaf baby's voice; and this goes on for about 6 months. Here and elsewhere, where I give definite time measures, they have to be taken globally and with great possible differences in the different individuals.

In the second phase, the adaptation phase, the baby begins to adapt his babbling to the world around, especially to his mother's voice. There is human contact all the time, and there is especially the most human contact of the voice. The voice of the adult only uses the sounds of this particular language, and as soon as the baby has

¹ Anton J. Reichling, "Course in Child Language," Amsterdam, 1948.

learned to listen more specifically, he starts to imitate, to take over, to adapt. The non-English sounds of the first period—presupposing from now on, we are dealing with an English-born baby—disappear, and the babbling becomes the first exercise in sound giving in English. Notice that active and reproductive adaptation, consisting of sound giving, always has to be preceded by passive, listening adaptation; it is therefore hard to say exactly when the baby begins to adapt himself. It is not hard to understand, however, that a deaf baby cannot possibly adapt himself, and that, therefore, from now on his development will be different. Frequently, we meet cases in which the mother knows by some kind of intuition that something is wrong with her child's hearing, and frequently, this is first noticed in the sixth, seventh month. To my opinion this is, or is also, caused by the fact that the babbling noises are not beginning to be adapted to the language of the family.

The main reason for the development of the babbling is the encouragement baby gets, not only by the positive effects in a physical way, e.g., to get his vital basic needs fulfilled, but also and in no lesser degree because of the inviting, caressing, socializing, praising, even punishing sounds that are directed to him. In short, because of the human acts of communication through voice giving, which is identified with the communicating person as a whole. There is not such an

encouragement for the deaf child.

Another thing happens between this 6th and 12th month to The hearing baby starts experiencing and conquerwiden the gap. ing the world around, be it a world confined to cradle, playpen, living room, and bathtub. He does this first of all by looking at everything, whereby he is not losing the needed contact and encouragement of the loving mother, because her voice is there and with him, even if he does not look. There is both a personal bond with the mother and an objective bond with the world to conquer. In deaf babies, there is either a more permanent eye contact with the mother, leading to a possibly traumatic overidentification with the early mother image, or pre-mature loss of this contact, leading to a possibly traumatic loss of the early mother image or some other possible damages in the harmonic growth of the personality.2 Young deaf babies course in lipreading should start here, by making them aware of the fact that the beloved face is more than just an encouragement and a protecting safeguard; that it is also a communicating personal and symbolic human contact. To encourage the babbling, to direct the baby's attention to the mouth and the face frequently, to accompany all interesting activities with the language as: "There is daddy," "take your spoon," "here's your bottle," "look at the little horse," "in the playpen now, come," and finally to encourage the growing interest in the things of the world around are necessary special means of special education that all mothers of deaf children should know about and practice.

The third phase is the single-word phase. Proud parents of 6-, 8-month-old babies will assure you that their Tommy or Mary definitely and clearly has said "mam, mam, mam," or "dad, dad, dad, daddy."

² A. van Uden, Annual Report, St. Michielsgestel, 1960.

The trouble is that they—I mean Tommy and Mary—say it in and out of season, that they say "mam, mam, mam" while they are playing with their blocks or while trying to get the ashtray, and that they say "dad, dad, dad" while they see the grocer's car or while they are mad; and that they refuse to say it while invited to do so at the right time and for the right person. In other words, there is not such a thing yet as a constant single symbol used for the same single reality, and for this reality only, and in different circumstances. It usually takes a little less or a little more than a year, before the child starts using a real word, always using it to name the same thing, person, or experience, never using it for something else, and using it in different situations. This instance is called the act of first wordmaking, and it frequently goes by unnoticed, when it occurs for the first time. But pretty soon the parents realize that now and finally they are dealing with a real word, and they cover their disappointment that it is not mam or daddy with their enthusiasm that the dog, the doll, or even the car finally got the privilege. The child goes on babbling and adapting himself more and more, also to melody and accept patterns. He babbles more in babbling syllables that sound very much like English, especially to linguists and foreigners, who both have better trained ears; and in the meantime there is that single word that is the beginning of real English. This single word is used as a sentence. The American boy, who used Ka L = caras his first word, used it when he was taken for a ride, but also when he wanted to go for a ride, when he saw daddy coming home or going out, when other cars went by, and finally when he got his own toy car. It might take several months, and it might only take a few days, but after a while the first word is not alone any more: There are more words, used in the same way as the first one. To repeat it once more: There is constancy in the word used, in the thing meant, and in the identical usage in different situations. The constancy of the word used, however, is a global one, with varying realizations. Say that the first word should be Blackie for the dog, then the constancy could vary between Pe, Ple, Ekky, Pekke, Ekke, Plek, etc. There is no analytical perception and, therefore, no analytical production as yet. But there is complete identity between the speech heard and used and the language perceived and produced.

There are two possibilities for the deaf child as theoretical extremes, and not necessarily excluding one another. There is the theoretical possibility of the first acts of symbolizing by imitative gesturing, fairly soon developing into formal signing. And there is the theoretical possibility of the first acts of symbolizing by attempts to repeat the lip movements. In both cases, a lot depends on the adult's behavior: first of all, the setting of an example: a mother who never speaks or draws the child's attention to her lips, and who starts the signing symbolization herself, versus a mother who tries to keep her child face-conscious, and who, after having encouraged the continuing babbling, now encourages the attempts to imitate lip movements; secondly, the encouragements or discouragements of the child's behavior; and thirdly, the beginning frustrations in the contact, or the prevention of them. Whatever may be the case, it is for certain that the deaf child, too, is entering into this third phase, and is going to use symbolic signals for

the things he is interested in.

I called the two extremes, the deaf child; namely, that gets an oral start at this age of 12 to 18 months, versus the one that starts off manu-

ally, theoretical extremes, but we better be honest with ourselves and face the facts: more than 99 percent of congenitally deaf children belong to the latter category of early signers. And there is where the dichotomy between speech plus lipreading and language starts: right here in the third phase, and still years away from the age at which we

can accept him in our preschool classes.

Sometimes people say: Oh, well, it's just natural gesturing these babies use; they don't have formal sign language yet. This is not true. The research I am engaged in enabled me to study the developmental process of manual-visual communications, and I found that natural gestures usually lead a very short life, and develop soon and fast into formal symbols, following the growth patterns of any linguistic symbol exactly. There is always first the so-called natural sign, consisting of a true imitation of an object, a reality in the visual world of the deaf baby and his mother. Baby or mother comes up with it a certain day; let us suppose for example to indicate thirst. The first time it will be an exact true imitation: Recognition by the watching partner follows, because this partner knows the situation, studies the imitation, and recognizes it by associating its faithful imitative character with the object imitated. This establishes an agreement between these two partners, which is really a linguistic agreement: From now on they both know that this signal stands for thirst, and the signal does not have to be an elaborate true imitation any more; first, the realization of the relevant features is enough to establish the recognition in the partner's mind, which recognition is not based upon association any more, but on identification. The signal from now on follows the rules of the Gestalt, and from natural, motivated gesture, it has grown into a formal sign. This happens all the time, and the facts are that most 3-, 31/2-year-old children communicate with their parents in formal signs; not many, usually, when compared with the richness in vocabulary of their hearing peers, but enough to establish the dichotomy mentioned, the widening gap between the developing esoteric means of communication and the oral contact, which grows into a foreign system more and more.

And yet this oral system has to be brought back to life when the child starts to school. The more the manual communication by that time has grown into an elaborately structured system, and the more the deaf child has neglected his voice giving and his lipreading, the more difficult the teacher's task will be. On the other hand, the more encouragement the child has received in his pre-preschool age, to keep on babbling and to watch the lips, the easier the preschool task will be. I know that I am talking about future ideals, but I would not be so positive about the great importance of all this, if I could not point at the first results, e.g., in Los Angeles, at Mrs. Tracy's clinic, in Manchester, England, through the pioneering work of the Ewings, and in St. Michielsgestel, Holland, with A. Van Uden's pre-preschool

setup, not to mention others.

The fourth phase of the normal development of the process of the acquisition of language is the language phase, in which, as it begins, the normal child starts combining two, and later on, three, four, and more words. The babbling ends here, but the adaptation continues and will continue throughout the years to come. Within this adaptation, the learning process of the idiomatic formal aspects of the language takes place so that the normal child has an early knowledge

of verb tenses, use of the article, prepositions, correct word order, and so forth. As the deaf child does not have 1 percent of this adaptation, even not in the case of frequent lipreading, his special education should start at the beginning of this final phase of the language

acquisition at last.

As I mentioned in my first point, there is normal growth in a hearing child's language development because of normal adaptation; but there is no growth in a deaf child's language, unless something special is done. And even if this is done, it is only a very small part of what the normal child gets. The normal child is exposed to language practically every minute of the day, to a total average of maybe 10 to 14 hours, both active, in speaking, and passive in listening, in high speed conversations that switch from this subject to that one, uses a tremendous vocabulary and all possible language structures the English grammar contains, while the deaf child before it goes to school, at best, is exposed to lipreading a few minutes a day, and a few hours, once he has entered preschool, in a very slow speed conversation, with a very small vocabulary and oversimplified grammatical structures. The consequence not only is that the deaf child learns language much slower, but also that the deaf child keeps developing other ways of human contact behavior that can grow out into something special, esoteric, abnormal. There is on the one hand the normal desire for communication, and on the other hand, the lack of vocabulary, capacity of grouping words, knowledge of syntactical sentence patterning, and so forth, and consequently, the need for human contact, for communicating experiences, feelings, news, affection, knowledge, and so forth, seeks other outlets. Gestures that just express the inner ego or just imitate the world around have a meaning, recognized by parents, other deaf children, and the rest of the surrounding world; once this meaning is agreed upon, these gestures develop fast into formal signs; the signs are combined, and the new visual contact system is born. Not necessarily born again and again with each individual, but taken over from the others in the classroom or the dormitory.

The spoken English and the English grammar have some influence upon this private system, but even more so the other way around: The visual communication is carried out for more hours per day than the classroom language, and it is better suited for expressing all the needs for communication I mentioned. The private system, therefore, influences the use of English very much; and the typical mistakes of the deaf child are there. A visual system is based upon the eyes, which in distinction from the ears do not perceive in succession of time, but globally and simultaneously. A system based upon the ears proceeds in time, and therefore, has an order of succession, has a definite word order with relations of the words to each other. The visual system does not have a succession of symbols, or at least not the the same type of succession. Neither has it an article, a preposition, a verb as distinct from a noun, tenses, plural, and so forth, and so

forth. All these realities are expressed differently.

At the present, I am engaged in a 6-year project, sponsored by Health, Education, and Welfare in Washington, D.C., which aims at investigating this private language of young deaf children, its growth, and its relation to the English language, as taught in the classroom. The general impressions I have given are the first fruits of this work.

TUESDAY, JUNE 27, 1961

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Main building chapel—Section leader: Mr. Paul E. McLelland, principal, Virginia School, Staunton.

9-9:45 a.m.

General session.

Keynote speaker: Dr. Boyce R. Williams, consultant for the deaf and hard of hearing, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C.

Interpreters: Charles B. Grow, Armin Turechek.

10-11:54

Morning session of vocational education workshops.

1:15-2:15

Afternoon session of vocational education workshop.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorder formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION WORKSHOPS

Main building

Workshop I:

"Administration and Supervision of Vocational Programs." Speaker consultant: Mr. Gilbert R. Bloomquist, supervisor of trade and industrial education, State department of education, Salem, Oreg.

Main building

Workshop II:

Vocational rehabilitation, vocational guidance, and the school vocational program.

Consultant: Dr. Boyce R. Williams.

Main building

Workshop III. "Homemaking," Mrs. Bernice Owens, main building. Workshop chairmen:

Mr. Howard Rahmlow, Riverside, California School.

Recorder: Miss Joanne Meek. Interpreter: Marshall Hester.

Mr. Thomas Fishler, Riverside, California School. Recorder: L. Dwight Rafferty.

Interpreter: Art Yates.

Mr. John M. Fessant, Oregon School. Recorder: Earl Rogerson.

Interpreter: Polly Shahan. Mr. Roy K. Patton, Alabama Institute.

Interpreter: Charles Grow. Mrs. Bernice Owens, Arkansas School. Interpreter: Armin Turechek.

Session I, 8:30 a.m.

Meeting of steering committee, recorders, and chairmen of committees.

9 a.m.

Attend general session of vocational section.

Setting our sights for the homemaking workshop. Presiding: Mrs. Bernice Owens, Arkansas school.

Recorder: Mrs. Vera Ruckdeshel, Rhode Island school.

Hostess: Mrs. Waneta Davies, Oregon school. "Homemaking Education Directions for the Sixties," Miss Bertha Kohlhagen, director, home economics, State department of education, Salem, Oreg.

11:45 a.m., Preschool building

Demonstration and lunch.

Presiding: Mrs. Connie Black, Mississippi. Recorder: Mrs. Gertrude Krehbiel, Kansas. Hostess: Mrs. LaVern Stack, Louisiana.

"The Use and Care of Electrical Appliances," Mrs. Patti Post, home econ-

omist, Portland General Electric.

1:30 p.m.

Understanding the needs of deaf girls.

Demonstration lesson:

"How To Teach Language in a Homemaking Class," Roy G. Parks, super-

intendent, Arkansas school.

2:30 p.m.

How to utilize commercial demonstrations, commercial materials and "resource people" in the homemaking program to help meet the needs of deaf girls.

3:45 p.m., Main building chapel

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

WHEN DO WE BEGIN?

(BOYCE R. WILLIAMS, consultant for the deaf, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C.)

The theme of this convention is "Setting Our Sights for the Sixties." Mr. McLelland has asked me to frame my remarks around this central core. I am pleased to do this. In the process, I have reviewed earlier statements that I have made to previous conventions and other meetings of professional workers in education, rehabilitation, psychology,

and so on. Several elements come into focus as a result.

First is the discrepancy in time. We find ourselves more than 15 percent into the decade before we come to grips with planning for the sixties. We recognize, of course, that this time lag is dictated by the calendar and the constitution of the convention and is in itself of no appreciable consequence. However, it does serve to prompt the question of whether we are moving forward at a rate consonant with the demands of society and our responsibilities to American deaf people. This concept adds special meaning to my topic, "When Do We Begin?"

A second and substantive element is our loose terminology. is a matter of definition. We are too prone to use definitive words to bridge specific training operations as they actually are with what we think they should be or what we would like them to be. I refer here to the continuing concern of shop teachers and shop supervisors with their responsibilities in vocational training. For more than 20 years it has been urged that vocational training is not a proper responsibility

of a school for the deaf for reasons such as these:

1. Our schools are elementary in nature.

2. Most of the student body are immature physically, socially, mentally, and emotionally.

3. Deaf people succeed in thousands of occupations whereas a given school can offer intensive training in only a very few.

4. Schools for the deaf cannot keep pace with technological advancement in even one skilled trade as compared to the continuing modernization of equipment going on in real vocational schools.

5. Most of the assembly line and automatic machine processes that attract deaf workers do not require appreciable specific

training.

Along with these convincing reasons we have examined the definition of vocational training in terms of what we actually do in our schools. Vocational training is trade training. It requires a trade curriculum, more than a few teaching hours per day, modern tools and machinery, and a journeyman instructor. There are in our schools very few training situations that even approach these criteria. Without debating the facts of whether we want or can establish such programs for growing children, we can probably readily agree that we have been using the term "vocational training" rather loosely.

These efforts to clarify the proper responsibilities of shops in schools for the deaf now reach into the third decade. Many times in meetings such as this we have agreed that the basic responsibility of shops is to add to the foundation by which our children may become better adults. We have emphasized that the purpose of the shops is to buttress and enrich the broader objectives of the whole school. We have agreed that our school shops should first focus on the fundamentals of entry into any occupation that the deaf person may elect to pursue when he is mature enough to select wisely.

Moreover, we have gone further to bring out that our shops should also give each individual extensive experience in developing his competencies in those factors which govern his advancement up the occupational scale. In the first instance, it has been obvious that we must inculcate each growing individual with an attitude pattern which is unimpeachable in terms of respect for self, employer, job, and cowork-

ers. Without such, his job tenure must always be precarious.

With respect to the second area of responsibility of the shops, we have come to recognize that the advancement of the individual on the occupational scale is conditioned in large measure by his powers of adaptability, by his precision in measurement, by his manual and mental skills, and by his knowledge of the work-a-day world and of the intangible factors related to his job. Moreover, we have agreed that these factors may be influenced favorably by intensive shop training activities. Finally, we have shared the thought that our school shops offer such rich and varied experience that they have high potential for fostering real competencies in these factors that are critical for occupational advancement.

Despite this history of agreement in our meetings over the years, how much hard core progress in implementing these fundamental truths have we actually made? Those of us who work in program and policy development frequently are confronted with these problems of definition and terminology. They indicate that there has been too much lipservice to these concepts and not enough real acceptance. Again and again we find our shop teachers expounding on their accomplishments in vocational training by citing alumni employed in their

trade area. This goes on and on even though it has been shown that vocational training is not an accurate description of the activities of

our shops.

This is not a digression in semantics, a comment which I shall amplify later. Right now it is basic for us to understand that we must put first things first. I repeat, when do we begin? When do we begin to purchase shop machinery, tools, and materials in terms of their contributions to making boys into better men rather than making boys into cobblers, printers, bakers, tailors, and so on? When do we as educators begin to speak with pride of the \$15,000 linotype as a wonderful training instrument rather than pointing to the number of graduates who are now employed as printers? Only when we clarify our thinking about our proper responsibilities as elementary school teachers can we share properly in the emancipation of deaf people from the stifling yoke of limited job opportunities. A first step is proper labels for our work. Then we must insist upon proper training for occupational entry and for occupational advancement as specified in objectives so often outlined heretofore. We will then really fulfill our potentials as educators. I repeat, when do we begin?

It may be later than we think. Already we are face to face with the inroads of automation. This is not something that can be easily solved by you as schoolteachers or by the rehabilitation worker. Each

of us has a critical role. They are complementary.

Your role in the sixties is no different than it was in the fifties or the forties or the thirties or from the beginning. Your role will never be any different for you have the gravest responsibility of all, specifically to lay the firm foundation upon which each of your students will later build his own job superstructure. Your task can be done most efficiently and effectively when you know the extent of your responsibilities, when you face up to them, and when you discharge them with the dedication and insight that are characteristic of teachers of the deaf.

The task of the rehabilitation worker may be more complex. His problem may often be one of job retraining. It may be more complex simply because we have limited resources with which to do it. However, all of us in this relatively new field of public service are fully aware that our effectiveness in carrying out our part of this responsibility rests directly upon you people who lay the foundation. The more effectively that you do your job, the better we can do ours. A failure on your part may very well thwart all of our efforts for that particular person. Actually, the vocational rehabilitation worker has a comparatively smooth experience with your well-grounded graduates. The counselor's frustrations stem mainly from your former students whose foundation training is inadequate.

Again, we come to this matter of definition. The increasingly effective working relationships between schools for the deaf and State rehabilitation agencies and the wonderful possibilities for accelerating training services for the deaf within the framework of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, reemphasize our need to choose our words carefully. Many of you are aware of the opportunities for the deaf that are being developed in Alabama and Mississippi and Wisconsin. You have recently received the May 1961 American Annals of the Deaf which reports the 1959 Workshop on Guidelines for the Establishment of Rehabilitation Facilities for the Deaf that was held at Fort

Monroe, Va. These pages set forth some guides that will help clarify developments in the previously mentioned States and other States that are becoming actively interested. You will find that the portion of our law related to facilities (Public Law 565, sec. 11(c)) permits the State rehabilitation agencies to use Federal funds in establishing rehabilitation facilities for the primary purpose of assisting in the rehabilitation of physically handicapped individuals which provide one or more of the following services:

1. Testing, fitting, or training in the use of prosthetic devices;

Prevocational or conditioning therapy;
 Physical or occupational therapy;

4. Adjustment training; or

5. Evaluation or control of special disabilities.

There is no provision in this part of the law for the establishment of a vocational training facility. You will note that vocational training is not mentioned. Accordingly it becomes clearer how important it is to be precise in your thinking about the kind of work that we actually do in the shops in school for the deaf. Loosely labeling this shop or that as vocational training can render very difficult the development of proper resources for deaf people in a given State. Examination of ongoing shop practices in schools for the deaf along the lines of the objectives we have described so often brings out that we are involved primarily in diagnostic, evaluation, adjustment, and prevocational training of deaf people. These are only proper labels for what we have been doing these many years.

Our thinking in relation to vocational rehabilitation and the establishment of vocational rehabilitation facilities in schools for the deaf must always stem from the basic premise that the vocational rehabilitation service does not assume the proper educational responsi-

bilities of the State.

We are interested only in the establishment of vocational rehabilitation facilities so that the clients of the State vocational rehabilitation agencies can be properly served. In this respect it is important to note that the State rehabilitation agencies serve disabled people of working

age whom they find eligible.

Since the beginning of my professional activities for the deaf many years ago, I have heard one variation or another of the pressing need for vocational schools for the deaf. These were to be set up on a regional or national basis so that the population base would be large enough to justify the cost of a modern vocational school. Again, when

do we begin?

The more enterprising of you should be excited by another portion of Public Law 565 (sec. 11(c)(2)), which states that a rehabilitation facility is a facility operated for the primary purpose of assisting in the rehabilitation of physically handicapped individuals—"through which is provided an integrated program of medical, psychological, social, and vocational evaluation and services under competent professional supervision * * *." You will find this amplified somewhat in the proceedings of the Fort Monroe Workshop to establish guidelines for facilities for the deaf. We see that the law permits establishment of a rehabilitation facility that provides an integrated program of medical, social, psychological, and vocational evaluation and service. Here then is your opportunity to make the sixties a decade of real emancipation for the 25 percent or more of deaf people who fall by the wayside for want of proper training resources. When do we begin?

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS AND TRENDS IN TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

(G. R. Bloomquist, assistant supervisor, Trade and Industrial Education Service, Oregon Department of Education)

We, in the Oregon State Department of Education, Division of Vocational and Post High School Education, have a very special interest in the problems of the handicapped. The assistant superintendent in charge of vocational education, Oscar Paulson, was once director of vocational rehabilitation for Oregon and a few years back this activity was within our division. It is now set up as a separate division. I also have a special interest in the handicapped as I have had 4 years experience as a counselor in vocational rehabilitation, and also 3 years as a training specialist in vocational rehabilitation. We feel in our department that the services we have to offer are a vital part of vocational rehabilitation.

From the suggested topics of discussion for this workshop concerning administration and supervision of vocational programs, I see many of the common concerns about vocational problems that we in public vocational education have, namely:

1. How to organize a functional program in vocational educa-

2. How to secure up-to-date equipment and teach new processes.

3. How to relate vocational and academic programs.

4. Responsibilities for placement counseling.5. Research planning in vocational education.

6. Should diversified occupations, distributive education, office practices, and so forth, be included in our school programs?

7. Coordination of vocational departments with State trade schools.

8. Scheduling problems.

9. Value of resource people in community.

10. Classes for mentally slow pupils.

11. Shop arithmetic.

12. Feasibility of allowing students to pursue popular trades regardless of qualifications.

13. Vocational programs for college preparation.

14. Vocational education—a means or end.

15. Homogeneous grouping.

These topics could logically be a part of a conference for trade and industrial educators. I hope to give you some information on the developments and trends in trade and industrial education which will relate to your problems and possibly give you some assistance in meeting your problems in vocational education. In order to do this, I will describe briefly—

First: Manpower needs for the sixties.

Second: Trends in vocational-technical education for trades and industry.

Third: Opportunities in trade and industry for the skilled and technical workers.

Before proceeding to describe the trends in vocational-technical education, I would like to go back briefly to developments in trade and industry that have brought about changes in vocational technical edu-

cation and training as we know it today. The following chart will help to refresh our memories on these developments:

Past developments in trade and industrial education

Era:

Industrial revolution of 1800's (need for industrial workers)

World War I (increased demand for skilled craftsmen)

Depression of thirties (slackened demand for workers in production)

World War II (intensified demand for skilled workers)

Post World War II (increased demand for construction and production workers)

Space Age (need for engineering technicians)

Trade and industry developments:

Manual labor schools, mechanic institutes, and manual training schools.

1917 Smith-Hughes Act, and Federal aid for vocational education to provide more skilled craftsmen.

1936 Geo. Deen Act to expand vocational education to distributive field.

Speedup in trades training, war production training.

1946 Geo. Bardon Act, expanded appropriation to provide training for skilled workers.

1958 title VIII NDE Act, area vocational education for technicians.

At present we are experiencing a considerable change in manpower needs insofar as skilled workers, technicians, semiskilled and unskilled workers are concerned. Our No. 1 concern is, "What are these manpower needs for the sixties?"

Before considering the facts, let us define the working groups in

trade and industry.

Unskilled.—Those who work on jobs that require no special training. Nemiskilled.—Workers who need special short-term training such as machine operators.

Skilled worker.—Craft or tradesmen who train on an apprenticeship or at a vocational school, or both, over a period of 2 to 5 years, to develop hand skills for employment as carpenters, machinists, etc.

Technician.—Highly skilled worker educated in algebra, physics, and technical knowledge. He works as an assistant to the scientist or engineer, between the craftsmen and the engineer. His training and education prepare him for responsibility as an independent worker on technical jobs.

In spite of our slowdown in employment this last winter, the future

presents an optimistic picture for certain fields of employment.

Note expansion expected in construction and the sameness of employment in manufacturing with anticipated increased output of goods. This would tend to indicate a greater need for skilled tradesmen and engineering technicians in construction and allied activity. The sameness of employment in manufacturing would indicate a reduction of semiskilled and unskilled workers due to the changeover to automation in manufacturing.

It is apparent from the chart that there will be an increasing demand for technical workers (technician), skilled workers (tradesmen), and service workers (television, radio, auto service, etc.). These demands will be reflected in an increased need for training and educa-

tion.

At present the educational level of occupational workers in the trade and industrial field show higher educational levels which are becoming essential for those entering these fields. With the increasing level of education for tradesmen and technicians, what are the "trends in vocational-technical training for trades and industry"?

In the skilled occupation the increasing complexity of jobs because of new materials and processes are placing added demands upon these workmen. Training for the skilled occupation is more intensively planned with closer supervision to make certain that the apprentice has completed training in all the phases of the occupation.

Vocational and technical schools and community or junior colleges are providing preapprenticeship training to give better preparation and more intensive coverage of theory, mathematics, science, and broad background study and practice before going on the job. Employers in some fields, with the increased competition of today, are finding it impractical to bring in an apprentice before he has some background in a vocational or trade or polytechnic school for useful employment. An example of such a preapprenticeship course offering is given on the following second-term schedule in automotive mechanics.

With the rapid changes taking place in various occupations due to technological change and automation, considerable added information and training is needed by the employed worker. For these people, occupational extension courses in new developments are being provided. An example of such a course is the industrial electronics for electricians which is offered in Oregon. This is a six-term course given in the evenings over a 2-year period to bring the electrician up to date on new developments. Other similar extension courses are provided for other tradesmen.

With the passage of the National Defense Education Act, title VIII. in 1958, which provided for education and training of highly skilled technicians, a new era of expanded technical curriculum offerings was started. These programs were established on an area basis in area vocational technical schools or community or junior colleges to make the curriculum offerings available to all qualified applicants in a geographic area. Two-year full-time education and training programs have been provided for training in such fields as electronic technology, civil and structural engineering technology, highway engineering technology, mechanical engineering technology, chemical enineering technology, and many others. These programs require a better educated student and as a consequence, high levels of attainment on entry exams such as the E.P.S.A.T. In addition most technical schools or junior colleges require high school graduation with courses in algebra and physical science usually required. The general curriculum pattern of these programs of study would include courses covering the technical skills, mathematics, science, and related fields. typical program in technical-vocational schools or community colleges would be organized on the following basis for a 2-year diploma or an associate degree.

Minimum graduation requirements for highly skilled technical programs

Basic courses	nits 33
Communication skills	12
Mathematics	11
Science	8
Related subjects	2
_	
Major technical courses	46
Technical course electives	11
Minimum requirements	90

Note .- 1 unit represents 12 class clock hours.

With the ever increasing demands for more education and training in skilled occupations and highly skilled engineering technician programs—"What are the opportunities in trades and industry for skilled

workers and engineering technicians?"

In spite of the extent of the unemployment experienced throughout the Nation this last winter, there continued to be a shortage of skilled workers and technicians. "All around the Nation, even in Detroit, jobs for skilled workers went unfilled. Industry will need 22 percent more skilled workers in 1965 than there were in 1955, and 45 percent more in 1975 than in 1955."

The changes in industry brought about by automation has increased the demand for skilled craftsmen and technicians. Engineering technicians are needed to help develop these devices and test and check their operation. Skilled craftsmen are needed to make these machines

and make repairs.

Automated machines have had the effect of eliminating jobs essentially at the semiskilled level, such as machine operators, and the unskilled worker. This emphasizes the importance of getting skilled or technical training as the production line worker will continue to be

less and less in demand.

Perhaps no field has expanded more rapidly and provided more new opportunities than the field of electronics. Job opportunities have more than doubled in this field during the last 10 years and jobs are expected to double again during the next 10 years. Beginning pay for electronic technicians runs from \$5,000 a year and up, with the possibility of reaching the \$10,000 to \$12,000 bracket after some experience. A nephew of my neighbor was one of the graduates of the first class completing the electronic technician course at the Salem Technical School 3 years ago. He began working as an electronic technician, after his 2-year course, at \$5,200 annual salary. Last year he earned approximately \$10,000.

The continued expansion of the auto industry with the introduction of all the compact models and foreign makes increases the demand for

skilled auto mechanics.

Data processing machines have also opened new fields of employment for the highly skilled technician. The expanding opportunities for the educated and trained person in trade and industry will set no bounds with the ever increasing industrial developments brought about by the scientific discoveries of our space age.

Through these brief comments, I have tried to show you:

The developments in trade and industrial education and training.

The manpower needs in the 1960's.

Trends in vocational-technical training for trade and industry. Opportunities in trade and industry for technicians and skilled workers.

I am sure that by relating the education and training of the deaf to the trends in trade and industrial education that the trades and industry can offer greater opportunities for the deaf. There is always a demand for the trained craftsman and the highly skilled engineering technician. We shortchange our handicapped individuals when we settle for semiskilled or unskilled jobs, if the individual has the potential for higher levels of attainment.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I—Administration and Supervision (Combined With Same Workshop for Thursday)

(Leader: Howard H. RAHMLOW, California School, Riverside)

(Recorder: Mrs. Patrice Costello, Crotched Mountain School, New Hampshire)

Since the group consisted of only hearing persons, the interpreter,

Dr. Marshall Hester, was excused from the meeting.

Following the talk by Mr. Bloomquist, many questions were directed to him concerning both the program as he had outlined it, and as to its implications to the program of vocational instruction in the various schools for the deaf. Some of the more important ones are contained in this summary as follows:

Question: What are the various State officials who are connected with vocational education doing to help to get the deaf accepted in vocational training programs in trade schools, junior colleges, and

other such programs of postschool for the deaf training?

Answer: In most States it appears that little or nothing is done directly by State officials. However, there was evidence presented that showed in some areas cooperation is being gained at the local level between the school for the deaf itself, and a local junior college or trade school.

It was suggested that this was an area in which more work should be done to acquire a better relationship between these agencies.

Question: How often do State officials, concerned with vocational or industrial education, visit schools for the deaf with an eye of assisting in improving the offerings being given by that school? Such visits might be instituted by either the school itself or by the State agency.

Answer: It appeared that practically no such supervision exists. It appears that in most instances State supervisors visit only on the request of the local school officials, since they do not come under their direct supervision. Further, local school officials have refrained from

requesting such visits often from fear of interference by a person whom they feel is unqualified to give adequate advice concerning the deaf and their problems.

It was suggested that this situation should be overcome so that there could be free communication between the groups as from a mutual interaction much good could be gained by both sides.

After the discussion of these two questions and a few others of a more personal nature to some member of the group, other topics were discussed.

Some question was made as to whether this meeting was concerned with the problems of only the pupils who are in a regular school for the deaf, for the adult deaf who have left school, or a combination of both, and if of both, to what extent? There was division within the group as one felt that the first duty was to the regular school pupil, while another felt that much more attention to the adult deaf who needs rehabilitation should be given. Neither group actually advocated neglect of the other group. The final consensus seemed to be that our problem is no different from that of the public school—that is, our first duty is to those pupils of regular school age, but any possible help be given to the out-of-school youth and young adults. It was pointed out that help with the out-of-school group might come through a bill now in Congress, known as H.R. 565, concerning adjustment training.

There was a rather general feeling that vocational training in a school for the deaf should be rather general and diversified rather than attempting specific skill training. This would make it possible to make the pupils more "fluid" in placement opportunities and also in replacement in the event that the job they hold is lost for one reason

or another.

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ir m A question was asked if OVR offices have a good rapport with schools for the deaf so that they work closely together in placement, use of existing records and mutual consultation of pupils concerned. It appeared again that this was a matter of local difference. Some offices and schools seem to have a fine working rapport, while in other cases it was noted that practically no exchange of materials or records is made. It was felt that this was an area where both agencies could do more to help one another and it is suggested that officials from each work to the end of becoming of more assistance to one another, and in making use of the others' materials, so as to avoid unnecessary duplication of effort.

As a summary of the workshop for the day, one might offer the following thoughts: Do not become too engrossed in a narrow field. Consider the offerings and assistance of all other agencies who have contact with the same pupils and problems with which you are con-

cerned

Better communication is needed between public schools and State agencies and the schools for the deaf. In this way each can know the others' problems better, and each will be in a far better position to assist the other.

Establish good public relations and good personal relations.

Don't work in a vacuum. Ask for help.

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Workshop II-Vocational Curricula Instruction

(Leader: John Fessant, Oregon School, Salem) (Recorder: Earl L. Rogerson, Arizona School, Tucson)

A list of questions for discussion was submitted by persons from all parts of the country. The following questions were discussed:

1. Do schools generally have courses of study for vocational educa-

tion?

The answer to this was "Yes". There was considerable discussion, however, on the practical application of the course of study. General agreement was that "production work for the school" greatly interfered with application and use of a course of study. Solution offered was to have two teachers, one to take care of formal training, and one to handle the production angle. Another suggestion was to have graduates not going to college to take postgraduate vocational training and assist the instructor.

2. Do we need to broaden the scope of learning situation in our

shop program?

Discussion centered around the lack of and need for arousing the interest of students. It was generally agreed that there were ways the scope could be broadened, but it would not be practical unless the students were interested. Ways and means offered were—memorizing versus use; shop language programs; use of pictures to "fix" shop language in the students' minds, and so on.

3. Can we institute a program for exchange of ideas and plans with the idea of developing a general basic course of study for vocational

education?

Not feasible because of school locations, general area, and topographical differences, student enrollment. Best solution is workshop such as we are now attending where exchange of ideas is practical.

4. What areas should be considered a part of vocational education—

industrial arts, general shop?

We got off the track here and did not specifically answer the question. Discussion centered on formal or textbook teaching and the "learn by doing method."

5. What can we do with the "team teaching" approach to vocational

education?

General feeling was that it would be hard to answer because so many work alone. However, a few schools where teams are used, reported very good results, mainly in the fact that it "freed one teacher to do production work, while the other taught fundamentals." Another idea discussed was the team approach between the various departments using projects that could be continued from one department to another.

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6. Discuss evaluation and use of commercial materials and other

teaching aids.

Commercial materials of the visual aids type have proven to be valuable in certain areas. Most companies furnish these free, or at a small cost. Film strips also considered to have merit. Daily lesson plans (as teaching aids) were found to be practical in only a small percentage of vocational classes. Reason for their failure to work satisfactorily was given as being constantly thrown out of sequence by unexpected production work of the "must have it now" variety.

7. Learning:

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(a) How to develop incentives for learning.

(b) How to develop proper attitudes—values—work habits.

(c) How to create interest.

(d) How to develop ability to accept responsibility and to create self-assurance.

(e) Shop time for vocabulary instruction, language. Justifi-

cation for or against.

(Note.—Had time to discuss only (a), (b), and (c).)

It was felt that (a), (b), and (c) could be combined, since one is dependent upon the others. Ideas offered were that "personal projects" led to more interest in the subject than mere production work or use of "job sheets" of a textbook nature. Incentive for better work could be gained by entering projects in county or State fairs, or similar affairs. Coeducational classes also tend to increase interest in specific subjects.

Workshop III—Vocational Rehabilitation, Vocational Guidance, and Their Relationship to the School Vocational Programs (Combined With the Same Workshop for Thursday)

> (Leader: Roy K. Patton, Alabama Institute, Talladega) (Recorder: Felix Kowalewski, California School, Riverside)

Discussion opened with the question of the relationship of the school with the vocational rehabilitation agency. On the whole, the relationship is not quite ideal as yet, but generally making progress.

Some schools have a rehabilitation office right on the campus, a positive advantage, since the counselor has direct contact with student

and staff and access to cumulative records.

Some students return to school for further vocational training during the summer, usually a 10-week course that helps to round out

pregraduation or dropout preparation for their final year.

In most schools, technical facilities are not available for further and more up-to-date training. Deaf workers should be able to go back to the rehabilitation department for help in retraining as changes come up in their line of work. A suggestion was made to overlap end-of-school training with on-the-job training by hiring experienced deaf workers as after hours teachers, with the cooperation of their particular industry and the vocational rehabilitation agent.

Even though the schools for the deaf give achievement tests, psychological tests, aptitude tests, etc., many graduates are still very immature long into their twenties; in other words, they still don't know what they want, or what to do. The communication problem especially points up the need of having a qualified interpreter avail-

able to help the local rehabilitation agent.

This brings up the need for a vocational evaluation center to continue a program of testing and retraining. It could be used for regional conferences to acquaint rehabilitation personnel with problems of the deaf, and establishing a closer relationship with vocational departments of the residential and day schools of the area.

In "Setting our Sights for the Sixties" we might look into the availability of closed-down military and other governmental buildings to be used as rehabilitation centers on a regional basis—for

instance, if three or four neighboring States could get together and work toward such a goal, with the help of the OVR. As usual, the problem will be one of finances and who will carry the ball. Under Public Law 565, the Federal Government may provide up to two-thirds of rehabilitation costs if the State will match by one-third. Many States lose out because they cannot seem to match this formula.

The following recommendations were made at the workshop:

1. That schools for the deaf seek aid from State rehabilitation agencies to improve vocational guidance and counseling services, for students in their later years and for former pupils in need of

service.

2. That State rehabilitation agencies be encouraged to establish rehabilitation facilities for the deaf within or adjacent to State schools for the deaf in accordance with sound standards of both

educational and rehabilitation responsibilities.

3. That the Federal Office of Vocational Rehabilitation be urged to study the need for a comprehensive free-standing vocationally oriented regional center for the deaf, and implement early action, preferably in an area where vocational and trade training opportunities for the deaf are seriously limited.

HOMEMAKING EDUCATION DIRECTIONS FOR THE SIXTIES

(Miss Beetha Kohlhagen, director, home economics, State Department of Education, Salem, Oreg.)

Meeting with teachers of deaf students is a unique experience for me after being in State supervision of home economics for over 25 years. Looking and planning ahead with groups in education has been a continuous part of my job. I recalled a presentation entitled, "Visioneering Into 1975," which I made to the National Conference of State Supervisors of homemaking education in Washington, D.C. in 1958. When I met with the homemaking instructors in the State of Washington for their conference in 1960, my talk was then titled "Broadening Our Orbits." The age in which we are living today makes us realize that a decade can offer many problems as well as opportunities. What prediction and information do we have that will help us determine our directions for the sixties?

POPULATION

(A) By 1970 will exceed 210 million as compared with our 1960 figure of 179,323,175—a gain of 18½ percent in the last decade. The 33-million addition to the population by 1970 comes to twice as many people as are now in Canada, more than half as many as in Great Britain, the equivalent of 10 new Chicagos. Nothing other than war is seen that can change that 10-year prospect.

These added people will not be spread evenly over the country. Instead, urban areas—already crowded—will become more crowded. People will tend to move to the West, the Southwest, the Great Lakes region. They will leave farms for the cities at a rate of about 300,000

a year.

THE PEOPLE

(B) The oldest and youngest age group will increase the fastest. Within the age group from which most workers are drawn—age 20 through 64—will be 106.5 million persons, compared with 94 million now, an increase of about 13 percent. Workers from this group, for the most part, will be called upon to provide a higher standard of living not only for themselves but for old and young people too.

The younger age group—under 20—will increase almost twice as fast as the working group. By 1970 this group will number 85 million against 68 million today. That is an increase of 25 percent. The age group over 65 will rise to 19 million, from 15 million now—

an increase of about 27 percent.

This shift in age groups suggest one thing: Large-scale unemployment in the next 10 years is improbable unless the economy is allowed to get completely upset. Labor scarcity appears more probable than labor abundance. The need for women in the working force is likely to continue to grow.

NEW HOUSEHOLDS

(C) More people mean more marriages. More marriages mean more births. The estimate is that marriages will be running at more than 2 million a year by 1970, compared with about 1.5 million a year now. Births are likely to rise from the present level of 4.3 million a year to 5.4 million.

Because of the rise in marriages and births, more new households will be formed. The projection is that there will be nearly 62 million

households 10 years from now, an increase of 10 million.

This increase in households means by itself a huge and growing demand for new homes as well as more furniture, more appliances, more draperies, and lighting fixtures—more of everything that goes into a home. Home building is expected to hit 1.5 million new houses a year by 1969, against the present 1.35 million.

Altogether, people's total spending in the prosperous decade that now lies ahead is likely to rise to around \$440 billion a year by 1970. The present rate of spending is about \$310 billion. So the country's business firms can expect an increase in consumer demand, at present

prices, of about \$130 billion a year.

Analysts tell you how people will spend this additional money: Outlays will increase roughly by 50 percent for operation of homes, for medical and personal care, for reading and recreation, and for various services. An increase of 33.3 percent is indicated in spending for clothing and for transportation. About 25 percent more will be spent for food.

EDUCATION

(D) It is going to be necessary to provide elementary schooling for nearly 6 million more children. There will be an increase of 4 million in the number of youths who must be accommodated in high schools. Colleges and universities, on top of that, will be called on to house and educate 2.7 million students over and above the present

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try. led. kes 000 3.7 million. College enrollment is to rise by 70 percent, and the school population as a whole by 27 percent.

HOMES AND FAMILY

(E) Even more mobility of families.

Labor saving devices common in every home.
3-D color TV on wall; automatic vegetable parer; electronic oven; purse telephones.

Wide selection of food items from which to select. The 5,000 now

may be doubled.

Variation in packaging for distribution—dehydrated, irradiated

foods.

Any change in society reflects in the home creating new problems and pressures resulting from more married homemakers working outside the home; earlier marriages with high school and college students having children; more aged, increase in number of family units, rapid technical development; more machines as productivity is increased; new products; shorter workweek, more leisure time; higher prices. How can we help homemakers, present and future, hurdle

I am reminded of a quotation from Emerson—

This time, like all times, is a very good one, if we but knew what to do with it.

Machines may probably be doing much of our work, but they will not do our thinking. What pattern will we use for homemaking edu-

cation during this decade?

Do you agree with me that homemaking education has as its primary aim the improvement of home and family living? The American Home Economics Association, in a recent publication titled "New Directions" gives a statement of philosophy and objectives for our professional field that every homemaking teacher should consider.

Home economics is the field of knowledge and service primarily concerned with strengthening family life through:

1. Educating the individual for family living.

 Improving the services and goods used by families.
 Conducting research to discover the changing needs of individuals and families and the means of satisfying these needs.

4. Furthering community, national, and world conditions favorable to

What are your beliefs concerning homemaking education? Could

you put them an paper?

In order to achieve our major goals and strengthen family living as suggested by our National Professional Organization, we need to first:

1. Know the girls and boys, men and women who are the memakers. What are their needs and interests? What is homemakers.

their level of maturity?

2. Set specific goals. Are they realistic when we consider the persons with whom we work? The Oregon homemaking teachers have agreed on basic subject matter areas with overall goals for each area. This gives an overview and shows the scope of

homemaking education in Oregon junior and senior high schools.

3. Determine organizational plan for operation. What are the grade level, sequence of courses, physical plant, and administrative regulations? How do each of these factors help determine how you achieve the Oregon goals for homemaking as well as your specific goals?

4. Select experiences and activities. This is the phase of planning which must be given major consideration. What titles do you give to units which you teach? How do you determine the percentage of time which is allocated to each unit? Oregon homemaking teachers have a tentative sequence for the seventh through

twelfth grades in the public schools of Oregon.

Use of visual aids and supplementary teaching materials give the homemaking teacher an opportunity to keep her classroom a "living" laboratory. Textbooks are useful but must not be depended upon as the only source of knowledge. Sketches, posters, exhibits, and demonstrations are very useful. Have you considered the possibility of an

organization such as Future Home Makers of America?

What recent magazine do you use as supplementary teaching material? Do you have the "Kiplinger Changing Times," a valuable aid to you? Refer to the March 1961 issue containing "Housework-What Is It Worth?", pages 21-23, and April 1961 "Where did all that Money Go?", how a family kept track of the \$153,805 that they earned and spent for 13 years, pages 21-27. Oscar Wilde has said "Nowadays people know the price of everything and the value of nothing."

The level of learning is one of the factors which may vary greatly for you who work with handicapped students. Oregon teachers have determined basic experiences which might be offered at the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade levels. However, the grade level is not as

important as the goal to be achieved.

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he hils What opportunities will be provided to your students for post-high-school education? The developments in community and junior colleges and general adult education in home economics mean that many

will have the opportunity to enroll in these classes.

As we work in the field of homemaking we must constantly be aware of the new family patterns that are emerging with the changing role of women. How should girls be educated to fill these new roles and meet the responsibilities and social changes of being wife and mother It is characteristic of the American genius to meet changeseven welcome it. When the pace of changes has accelerated as never before, there is a certain optimism which will help us in meeting these challenges. The school occupies the crucial position in preparing young people for these changes.

We need to learn to react to change in such a way that we find in it a basis for satisfaction and optimism, rather than for frustration and pessimism. Recognition of the inevitability of change should lead us to make the most of each happy day and hour, so, "Let's be like a duck, keeping calm on the outside and paddling like the dickens underneath—then maybe our dreams will become realities."

Workshop IV-Demonstration and Luncheon

(Leader: Mrs. Connie Black, Mississippi school, Jackson)

(Recorder: Mrs. Gertrude Krehbiel, Kansas school, Olathe)

(Consultants, Mrs. Pattie Post, home economist, Portland General Electric Co. and Mrs. Bettle Ashbugh, regional home economist, National Lamb Council)

Mrs. Post and Mrs. Ashbugh demonstrated the use and care of the latest portable electric appliances, stressing the use, convenience, and durability of each. The appliances were used in preparing a luncheon which was served to the group of teachers, and five high school girls from the homemaking class of the Oregon School for the Deaf.

Mr. Roy Parks, superintendent of the Arkansas school, gave a demonstration on "How to teach language in a homemaking class."

He stressed that all language grows out of an experience.

(Note.—This workshop combined with a similar one for Thursday.)

TUESDAY, JUNE 27, 1961

MULTIPLE HANDICAPS

(SLOW LEARNING DEAF CHILD)

Primary building .- Section leader: Dr. Ralph Hoag.

9-9:45 a.m.

Opening speaker: Dr. Hans Furth, assistant professor of psychology, Catholic University, Washington, D.C.

Discussion moderator: Mr. Myron Leenhouts, principal, California School for the Deaf, Berkeley

10-11:30 a.m. Evaluation and research

Leader: Dr. George Leshin, hearing conservation supervisor, Oregon State Board of Health. Paper to be read by Dr. Robert Blakeley, instructor, speech pathology and hearing, University of Oregon Medical School.

Recorder: Mr. Albert C. Esterline, principal, Minnesota school.

1:15-2:30 p.m. Curriculum

Leader: Miss Eloise Kennedy, supervising teacher, New Mexico School for the Deaf.

Recorder: Mr. Albert Pimentel, teacher, Porterville, Calif.

2:30-3:45 p.m. Counseling and vocational planning

Leader: Dr. Lloyd W. Graunke, superintendent, Tennessee School for the Deaf.

Recorder: Mr. Gordon Harland, teacher, Arizona school.

Interpreters: Melvin H. Brasel, Hugo Schunhoff, Eldon Shipman, James Kirkley.

A PSYCHOLOGIST'S VIEW ON THE SLOW-LEARNING DEAF CHILD

(Dr. Hans G. Fueth, assistant professor of psychology, Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.)

I feel doubly privileged to have the pleasure of speaking to you on this occasion and in this place. Until a year ago I was able to call this beautiful school in which we are assembled "my school," the place where I worked for 2 years as psychologist and where many of the ideas which you will hear during this opening speech were born and

developed.

Some 2 years ago while I was investigating the relationship between the arousal level of the autonom nerve system and learning, (1) I spoke in this room to a gorup of teachers about the possible connection between early deafness, lack of environmental stimulation, lack of arousal, and slow learning, and I was intrigued to hear our keynote speaker yesterday morning speculate on the same topic. You see, it is relatively easy to come up with theories, but research follows slowly. As yet I know of no scientific investigation of a deaf child's autonomic activity.

I believe that it is the psychologist's proper job to do such and other research pertaining to deafness and I am delighted to have this opportunity to speak to you about what I consider the main role a psychologist should play in answering problems confronting the teacher of the deaf. However, in stressing research I don't wish to be misunderstood as belittling the important position psychologists

fill in the area of testing and guidance.

I consider myself fortunate to have started my association with deaf people, not through a school, but working for 2 years with deaf families and persons in the community. This was during the beginning stages of the New York State mental health project with which most of you are no doubt familiar. I believe this work gave me a better chance to have a reality-oriented approach in my psychological work with the deaf than if I had been exposed from the beginning to the school environment which, after all, is at best only a place of training and by necessity has some rather artificial characteristics which may cloud the image of the adult deaf. Allow me then to begin this talk with some general remarks concerning our topic and the psychologist's potential contribution, and to end with a few particular suggestions which might be of interest to you teachers in your concern for the slow learning deaf child.

Our topic is the slow learning deaf child. The problem is obvious, even though not adequately defined. Who are these children and how many are there? Since I have no criteria or statistics available on the last point, it might interest you if I report to you the result of a survey, (2) which was made about 2 years ago. Teachers of all the schools in a State were asked to rate their pupils on scholastic or learning ability, comparing the particular child with an average deaf child of like age. The age groups concerned were 7-to-12-year-

old pupils.

The results were satisfactorily reliable; i.e., two or three teachers agreed pretty well on the rating of a particular child, but when they were tabulated it appeared that while 22 percent of the children were rated as having above or much above average ability, 44 percent were found to fall in the category of below, or much below, average learning

ability.

Are we then talking about the 44 percent or nearly one-half of our deaf school population who are not keeping up with the expectation of an average deaf child? In my talk with various teachers and principals around the country I tend to come to the conclusion that this figure might well be correct. This is a staggeringly large number and if we translate this into the sweat and the frustration of the

child and the teacher and the parent and the administrator and the houseparent, we catch a glimpse of the urgency of the problem,

Who are these children? Are they all mentally defective or brain damaged? And if so, why so many? The outsider who looks at this picture is understandably bewildered. He asks and looks around. And the answer he gets is—or at least this is the impression which those who talk loudest give—"Yes, they are not just deaf. They are multihandicapped, with a majority being brain injured." And to the questioning look of the asker the reply is ready: "Modern drugs save the lives of many who otherwise would have died, but save them at the cost of some central nervous system impairment." That sounds quite plausible, but, the curious outsider continues, "How do you know they are brain impaired?" "Well," your imaginary expert replies, "He doesn't learn. He doesn't learn, as a deaf child should, so there must be something wrong with him, somewhere."

So this is the criterion for minimally brain injured. Before we forget, let us ask what the criterion for a teaching method is. "It

works, the average child learns."

This reminds me of the story that was told of a town in pre-First World War central Europe, which was famous for the punctuality of its regiment. Every morning before 6 o'clock the regiment would march to the court in front of the flag tower, the flag would be raised, and the trumpets would sound at the very moment when the clock started striking the full hour; with the same punctuality the flag would come down at exactly 6 o'clock every evening, to the sound of the trumpets. Visitors would observe the ritual and admire its exact timing. One day a visitor approached the sergeant and asked him, "Sir, can you tell how it is possible for you to keep such punctuality? Exactly at 6 o'clock in the morning the flag reaches the top with the sound of the trumpet, and in the evening the flag starts coming down exactly at 6. How is it that there is not a day when your timing and the operation of the clock do not coincide?" The sergeant smiled and replied: "Well, sir, I appreciate your admiration for our perfect timing. But you must know our town is famous not only for our marvelous exactitude in the raising and lowering of the flag, but also deservedly famous for its marvelous watchmaker. And so every morning before I walk to the armory I set my watch according to the watchmaker's clock and every evening I do the same."

The curious visitor was still not satisfied and he decided to see the watchmaker. He admired above all the clock which stood magnificently in the show window and which was said to have kept its time for years and generations. When the visitor expressed his admiration for the wonderful exactitude of this clock, the watchmaker replied: "You must know, sir, that our town is famous not only for the marvelous clock which you so rightly admire, but it is also famous for the unerring exactitude with which the raising and lowering of the flag is performed day after day. And every morning when I hear the sound of the trumpet I set my clock to exactly six and every evening I

do the same."

This delightful story was told by a neurologist in a lecture addressed mainly to psychologists concerning the diagnosis of minimal braindamage (3). There is no surer way of getting nowhere than by going around in circles.

Let me just add one more word concerning the term "brain damage." To call a child with learning difficulties "brain damaged" is about as helpful as to label a child with a temperature "body damaged." Neurology is not ready to speak authoritatively concerning minimal braindamage, and, as we were warned yesterday by Dr. Lowell, let the educator or psychologist or audiologist not be so foolish as to claim that

vacant authority.

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Well, what happens now to the teaching method? Are the methods we are using to teach deaf youngsters scientifically established? There is a rumor that some 30 or 40 years ago somebody, somewhere, did a study contrasting the so-called oral with the manual method. I was never able to locate any evidence as far as research is concerned, so that all that remains concerning the soundness of our method is the answer to the question, "Does it work?" Well, does it? I ask you teachers. Are you satisfied with the results? "Well, no. Of course not; half of our pupils are kind of failures and one-third might even be termed utter failures, but then we are told many deaf youngsters nowadays are mentally impaired, brain injured * * *." You see the circular reasoning.

At this point at which you are beginning to doubt the soundness of the teaching method, there comes to your assistance the person who convinces you it is the teacher's fault. You see, they don't know how

to teach. "But in our school-and so forth, and so forth."

Dear teachers, if the whole thing were not so tragic and so real, I would be happy to call the hypothetical picture I displayed of the outside inquirer and the expert on deafness a good old joke aimed at warning us what not to do.

But there is the problem in its stark reality. What can a psycholo-

gist contribute toward solving the problem?

Permit me to disabuse you of the notion that the psychologist's main purpose is to test, to diagnose, or to counsel. I believe that this and similar things are not the prerogative of the psychologist, nor can he act with much authority in this role when he is confronted with a

slow learning deaf child.

But there is one role that is proper to his profession, in which he can speak with authority and sureness of conviction. I beg you to think of the psychologist as a person whose primary job is to explain, to discover, and to relate laws of human behavior with no prior commitment to any particular method of teaching, or any assumed outside goal or popular theory.

Ask the psychologist not whether or not a child is brain-injured, not whether the goal of our education should be "deafness shall be no more," not whether residential or day schools are better; ask him for basic psychological information: How does a deaf child think, learn, memorize, perceive? How does the language deficiency affect

these processes?

Ask the scientist who has no personal or political commitment to evaluate various teaching methods in an objective, commonsense sort of manner. Ask the psychologist to be first of all a scientist who will help you to discover basic psychological facts and expect him to have the scientific training to ask pertinent questions. Ask him finally to interpret the results of an investigation so as not to confuse facts and theory and to distinguish results from interpretation.

We all are utterly astonished at the lack of research in the area of communication disorders. However, let me hasten to add that research is going on. I know of various psychologists who are recognizing the wonderful opportunity for most worthwhile and badly needed research. Catholic University in Washington has a program for training psychologists for research in the area of communication disorders. Dr. Lowell of the John Tracy Clinic is at this very moment reporting on an objective method which might help us to discover the functioning of the ear at an earlier stage than usual and in a more reliable manner—the kind of research that is so desperately needed to test the hearing of many atypically deaf children. Four psychological studies with a deaf population will be presented to a professional audience during the coming meeting of the American Psychological Association in New York City, and these studies will be related to general scientific psychology. All this is very hopeful and I want you to encourage this sprouting research with an open, flexible attitude.

One additional reason why research is so urgently needed is the following. As was mentioned yesterday, children with communication disorders are alive, we have to educate them, we clamor for trained professionals to teach them, and somehow we do train them and they attain to the glamorous professional state. Having so few scientific facts to give to these teachers, we feed them with hunches, theories, unproven assumptions, and trial and error methods. It is a veritable dilemma, because frequently all we accomplish is that we implant unscientific prejudice in the place of perhaps wholesome commonsense which would not only have been better for the teaching situation but which also would have prepared the teacher to accept eventual scientific facts with greater readiness and flexibility.

problems which are closely connected with the slow learning deaf child. There are three points which I would like to present for your

Now allow me to end with a few concrete examples of researchable

consideration and possible discussion later on.

I wish to preface these points by making it understood that I am speaking of the average, common child, not the exceptional child. All too often we cite as evidence of a general ability an instance of an exceptional nature. Our concern here is with the bulk, the great majority of our schoolchildren. My first point deals with language, and more particularly with what is called by linguists "first language" learning (4). First language learning differs from any other language learning in that it occurs concomitantly with other kinds of learning which commonly come about, not by any formal training, but by the very fact that a child is living and experiencing. The overwhelming majority of children in this world learn language in much the same way as they learn walking, eating, perceiving, thinking, and loving.

Now, it was remarked here yesterday that a child who does not master language by the age of 10 has a very slim chance ever to learn it. It would seem more in conformity with our knowledge of common development to lower this age limit to 4 or 5. I believe that if you get a deaf youngster 5 years old, who has only a minimum amount of communication available, you already start off the formal education with a terrific handicap. Actually it can be said with a great degree of confidence that for the majority of such children,

English will remain like a foreign body which they will absorb to a certain degree but rarely truly integrate within their personality.

The reason for this can be found in the fact that such children have of necessity developed their first language—but have done so without the benefit of continual communication and without building their first language on the basis of the language of society.

Teachers of the deaf have by now recognized the need for an early start in language training, but I am afraid even the earliest feasible start at the age of 3 is still too late as far as I, the psychologist, am

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It is an open secret that deaf children of a totally deaf parental home have an advantage over other children and usually do as well as or better in language than other good pupils. If any teacher knows of any deaf child who at 5 years of age was reasonably skilled in manual communication but who subsequently remained below average

in language learning I would like to hear of this child.

If the combined method of signing, spelling, and speaking is of real benefit to deaf children of deaf parents, why don't we help hearing parents of deaf children to give themselves and their children the same advantage? Why do we allow the precious first 3 or 4 years to be wasted without showing parents the easiest way in which they can learn to communicate with their deaf child? Is it not our duty as teachers to give the child the very best opportunity to develop, to learn to communicate?

Obviously I don't suggest for a moment that speech should be discontinued but I do suggest that any kind of auxiliary, visible means be employed to help convey to the child the idea of language. Is it not clear that a parent who would learn signs for the first time in his life would use them in the way he speaks his English language? There is not a shred of evidence that the conventional sign language must be of an inferior grammatical or conceptual level to that of the English language (5). It stands to reason that the conventional sign language would and could be vastly improved if parents and teachers of the deaf would not shy away from taking the trouble to teach its proper English-like use. Just think what would happen with our English language if it were not taught in schools. Frederick of Prussia considered German a language fit only for peasants and uncultured people because he was educated in a tradition in which French and Latin were taught and used as literary languages. French was the language among educated people while the native German was left to the "uneducated" and was never taught in schools.

In short I believe time is too short and the need too urgent to permit us to neglect a possible helpful approach toward language

learning.

My second suggestion related to flexibility of teaching methods and in particular I would like to emphasize that all kinds of things can be learned by nonverbal means. It seems to me that in our effort to teach language and speech we must not forget that we are dealing with a human child. Like any other child our deaf youngster wants to feel the thrill of accomplishment, of success, of mental energy. If for no other reason, we should supply the slow learning deaf child with plenty of such opportunities.

Now it is not sufficient to make up to the child for his lack of accomplishment outside of school hours only. In this case we are mere-

ly establishing in the child a firm dislike for school and this aver-

sion will make teaching or learning none the easier.

Over and above giving the deaf child who is poor in language a chance to succeed I believe there are many ways in which we can instruct the child by nonverbal means. It would be most desirable to do research in this particular area. I can mention here just one or

two points from my own experience.

As a psychologist I am engaged in investigating the cognitive capacities of deaf people by means of nonverbal problems (6). One of the problems has to do with the ability to balance a moveable bar by using two weights of different values, for example, 4 ounces and 8 ounces, and hanging the smaller weight on at a certain distance, say of 6 inches, from the center. The bar is marked with holes and numbers, corresponding to the distance of each hole from the center, from 1 to 12. The particular weight mentioned above was hung on distance 3, in balance with the 4-ounce weight on distance 6.

Surely to solve such a problem requires some reasoning, particularly to obtain the principle which allows us to balance a certain weight against another without trial and error. It is proposed by a leading psychologist (7) that the ability to derive the principle of proportional reciprocity from concrete instances is a mark of formal intelligence, the kind of intelligence which does not become manifest

before the age of 11 or 12.

In our research we found indeed that 11-year-old deaf pupils were decidedly inferior to hearing children in their performance on a series of such problems. Language as such was not an important variable. A number of hearing pupils acted with great precision without being able to verbalize correctly the principle of action. Then, why the

difference?

At this point my best guess would connect the deaf children's relatively poor performance not so much with a lack of intellectual capacity as with lack of training. We had the chance to see for a second time a few deaf youngsters who at first seemed to act with the balance as if it never occurred to them that any rational principle could be involved. What we actually did was to train them on an even simpler apparatus to get the idea of weight and distance. We found that with very little training our deaf pupils were not far from getting the rational principle.

This is precisely what I think could be done with great profit in our schools, particularly to the slow-learning deaf. Teach and train him by nonverbal means, or rather endeavor to work out methods

and content in which nonverbal means can be used.

In this connection I would like to bring to your attention another teaching aid which could help you in educating the slow child. I am referring to the so-called teaching machine, a small model of which I am showing you here (8). If properly programed, such a device could be used with benefit as it is self-instructive, the child can work at his own pace, and it is easier to get him involved in what he is doing. Moreover—I am again drawing on my knowledge from research I am actively engaged in (9)—it would seem entirely possible to make up a program consisting entirely of nonverbal material which would constitute a kind of course in nonverbal thinking. By nonverbal, I do not mean that words may not be used, I merely mean that they are not necessary. There are problems in discrimination, grouping, memory,

perspective, discovery of a relevant principle, and so forth, which would lend themselves to such a program. I am even toying with the idea of devising such a tentative program and would like to try it out in two or three different schools. I would welcome hearing from ad-

ministrators and teachers interested in such a project.

My final remarks are addressed to you teachers insofar as you counsel parents of deaf children. You will have noticed that most of my suggestions for research were concerned with the development of the whole child and were a kind of caution against putting too much emphasis on language alone. In the same strain I believe that much harm is being done, and particularly in the case of the slow learning child, by giving parents the idea that all that is needed is

spoken language.

We know from psychological observation that there is one thing which any child needs from his parental home, if this home is going to be of potential help and not a hindrance for his eventual adjustment in the world. What is this? It is love, of course, but love of a special kind. In studies (10) of well-adjusted children it was found that all kinds of parents, with different attitudes and discipline and different manifestations of love were found in their parental home. The parents had one thing in common, however, with regard to their children. They all showed them a degree of acceptance as independent, worthwhile human beings, which conveyed to the children the precious conviction: "I am loved for what I am. I am welcome as I am. I am not perfect. Nobody is perfect. My parents don't pretend to be perfect. I don't have to pretend to be perfect. I am worthwhile, as I am."

Now think for a moment of a deaf child born into a hearing family. It is going to be harder for this than for an average child to grow up with the assurance of welcome and acceptance. I believe that many a slow learning deaf child's problems can be traced back to a basic rejection of the child as he is. And there is no easy remedy at hand when a child comes to school with the uneasy feeling that he really is not liked as he is, but that he ought to be different, hearing and

talking like Jimmie, his older brother, or the boy next door.

My question to you is: "Are we teachers doing all in our power to help parents accept their deaf children?" Mind you, I am not minimizing for a moment the emotional conflict which the average parent must work through before he is ready to accept an exceptional child. It is not easy for hearing parents to really accept a deaf child.

What then do so many school principals, teachers, and speech therapists say to parents of deaf children? Naturally, they are convinced, rightly or wrongly, of the soundness of their teaching method and of the ultimate success of their teaching goal, and they want parents to cooperate. Many even believe that an ardent conviction on the part of the teacher and parent is a prerequisite for ultimate success in speech education. The trouble with this kind of attitude is that it conveys to the parent the idea not to accept the deaf child as he is, but to make, as it were, the giving of acceptance conditional on his learning to speak and understand language as others do.

Such an attitude plays havoc with the parent's emotional conflict and ambivalence concerning his child's deficiency. Those who like to bolster their conviction will point to several cases where parents have wholeheartedly cooperated and where the child has apparently prospered in education and life adjustment. But who is going to count the failures, the unhappy parents who say to a counselor when the child is well advanced in school age, poorly educated and adjusted: "Why was I not told that many a deaf adult lives a happy and constructive life to a great extent within a deaf community? Would it not have been better to help the child live, grow up and communicate in any kind of fashion than to stake a whole life on the faint hope that my child will be one in a hundred or thousand who will master and feel perfectly at home in the spoken language environment of the hearing world?" As psychologist in a school for the deaf I had too many occasions when parents would speak to me in such words.

I am deeply convinced that our frequent school failures are partly related to the problem of parental acceptance. A communitywide effort should be made to help parents of deaf children toward a healthy and reasonable acceptance of the child with his handicap. I dare suggest that one good counselor in a community could do much toward preparing children for school at a much lower cost than a preschool with all its teachers and facilities.

I would encourage each of you to think of the precious parent-child relationship of acceptance whenever you are in contact with the parent and do nothing on your part to undermine it. At the same time work in your community toward establishing a healthy, realistic attitude in the counseling of parents with regard to the deaf child. I believe that many school and learning problems will be solved and will be solved only if we succeed in helping the parent to accept—without reservation or condition—his deaf child.

Thank you for your patience. Please, feel free to make comments

Thank you for your patience. Please, feel free to make comments or ask questions on specific topics during the discussion which will follow after the next paper.

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THE SLOW-LEARNING DEAF CHILD

(George J. Leshin, hearing conservation supervisor, Oregon State Board of Health)

In almost every school for the deaf—whether it be residential or day—there is the child with average or above average intelligence who has been labeled a "slow learner." This is the child who breaks the hearts of topnotch teachers of the deaf and has broken their hearts for as far back as anyone cares to remember. And, as you know, the problem of slow learners is not confined to the deaf child alone.

What is meant by the "slow learning" deaf child? This term has almost as many meanings as there are teachers of the deaf. I have chosen to narrow my meaning down sharply to encompass only the child I have described above—the child with average or above average potential intelligence who does not learn well, or forgets quickly, and for whom there is no obvious physical or mental reason for

academic failure.

This definition would then eliminate the obviously mentally retarded deaf child; or the child with more than one physical handicap; or the child with organic brain involvement. Dr. Walter of Kent State University has used the term "multiple exceptionality" to describe the child who deviates from the normal child in terms of more than one handicap—whether the deviations be physical, mental,

or emotionally based.

It usually is not easy to say "this is a slow learning deaf child" as I have defined him above. Much too often in the case of the child with learning difficulties we are prone to say, "Oh, he is aphasic" or "he is brain injured" or "he is not very bright" or "he is spoiled." We as teachers of the deaf say these things even when we are not sure of our ground because we are upset, baffled, chagrined, and frustrated. Often we have used everything in our bag of tricks without being able to solve the mystery of nonlearning in a bright child. Our foundations as successful teachers are threatened and we begin to feel quite defensive about our inability to get through to these children. This is not a criticism of teachers of the deaf but merely a description of reaction to an extremely puzzling problem.

In order to say "this is a slow learning deaf child" as we have described him today, a most careful evaluation must be accomplished. Every possible kind of physical involvement—whether gross or minimal—must be considered. Hardy (3) has described a number of ways in which a child can be involved in terms of communication. He talks about five levels of auditory impairment. For example, there can be impairment of the mechanism which transmits sound, that is, involvement of the external or middle ear. This is the typical conductive impairment and does not exceed 60 decibels. Damage to the inner ear, particularly in the cochlea, would interfere with the reception and encoding of sound. This impairment generally does not exceed an

average loss of 70 to 75 decibels. While a conductive loss has little effect on communication unless it is of long standing, the inner ear damage can be disastrous in verbal areas especially if it occurs before

the onset of speech and language development.

If there is damage or maldevelopment of the auditory mechanism of the brain stem, interbrain and thalamus there is interference with the transmission and dissemination of sound. This may appear to be like a typical nerve-type impairment, not profound, often quite mild, but these children want more loudness than would be expected with cochlear damage. These children may show no signs of brain damage or language disorders but the effect on learning can be serious since auditory symbols may not be properly transmitted to the brain. The effect on communication can be catastrophic since speech, language, and symbolism based on auditory stimuli may be interfered with.

If there is damage to either the neutral pathways or the auditory cortex, a problem in perception results. The function of the auditory cortex is to decode the message, to synthesize the information and to project it in a pattern that is relatable to other cortical functions. In regard to learning, this damage varies widely but such children often learn speech and language quite slowly—a concept requires firm reiteration and reinforcement but once learned it is firmly retained. Such children may be hyperactive with short attention span but may develop good speech and language if damage is in the auditory perceptive area of the cortex only and not in other areas, causing aphasia. The effect of this type of damage on communication varies widely from almost normal development of speech and language to severe retardation and disruption.

Still a fifth area of language or learning disorder involves damage to the sensory or motor complexes or both; the damage may involve a diffuse transcortical disability including several modes of language reception and expression. In general, this is a language disorder of association. Such children are slow in development on most counts; they may be able to learn and repeat new words readily but cannot remember them or put them to use; oral-auditory saturation may not help, and ability to retain aurally or visually may be well below normal. This is really more of an aphasic problem than an auditory one.

Obviously to obtain a differential diagnosis of these five levels of organic impairment involves study by a team of experts and study of the most thorough and painstaking variety. Even when a difficult case has been thoroughly diagnosed and no unusual organic problem has been uncovered, we still may not be much closer to the source of

the problem of the slow learner.

Let's suppose—no, let's not suppose but rather take a real child. Johnny, 9 years old, is attending a school for the deaf. He has been subjected to the thorough, painstaking examination just described and a differential diagnosis of profound hearing loss of the cochlear variety has been made. There was absolutely no evidence of any other organic impairment. A team of experts involving neurologist, pediatrician, audiologist, speech pathologist, psychologist, and social worker performed a complete evaluation. The electroencephalogram was was within normal limits. An average 80-decibel loss bilaterally was found. The psychologist obtained a performance IQ of 115 on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. Johnny walked at 9 months and appeared normal in motor development. There was

nothing here to suggest organic involvement other than the hearing loss. On the debit side of the ledger, however, Johnny is a "bed wetter," he can't stand dirt; he bathes two or three times a day; he is very sensitive and while he is generally well liked by the other chil-

dren he is known to have an explosive temper.

Johnny is one of these "slow learning" deaf children. He has a very short attention span; doesn't seem to remember; he is forever bothering others in his class; he is a very poor lipreader; he often seems oblivious of his surroundings and is only recently beginning to show awareness of being part of a learning situation. Johnny has no connected language. He is able to speak well when the teacher insists on it but his natural speech is poor.

Johnny, despite his poor academic record, often surprises his teacher by answering a question that everyone else in the class has missed. These flashes of real brilliance have convinced every one of his teachers that he is potentially capable of much better work and speech

than he is currently displaying.

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At times Johnny has "taken" things belonging to other children. It is doubtful that he considers this as "stealing." Johnny, however, generally respects authority and is not impudent. He seems somewhat "motor driven" and is always tapping in rhythm, is active and restless, and is always moving. He is good at sports and is very well coordinated. His teachers say that he likes to pretend he doesn't know something and then he finally gives the correct answer and surprises everyone.

Johnny is friendly, attractive in appearance, gregarious, and likes groups. When he has a flash of temper, other children shy away from him. His mother describes him as a "very selfish and controlling youngster." He is quite talented and artistic but considers the learning of speech and language a chore. The mother feels that this may be due to the influence of too long and too early emphasis. Both

parents are college graduates.

At the age of 2 Johnny and his mother enrolled at a community hearing and speech center where Johnny's hearing loss was evaluated and preschool training was begun, and where he started to wear a hearing aid. At age 3½ he was taken to a day school for the deaf for the first time to be enrolled. His mother states that he hated to leave home and disliked attending school even more. The mother is convinced that this was not a real dislike of the school but rather a lack of readiness to go to school. After enrolling he completely refused to go. Even when the parents drove by the school Johnny would throw himself on the floor of the car. When anyone from the school would visit in the home Johnny would show rather bizarre behavior.

At home the father applies the disciplinary hand while the mother deprives Johnny of TV if he has broken family rules. Johnny never volunteers to do anything (although this is certainly not unusual of boys). He likes to be neat and takes good care of his clothes. Father and child have a good relationship and father tries to help Johnny with his homework but neither is very enthused. There are no marital problems in the home but the mother has worked almost constantly since Johnny was born. There is a great sibling rivalry at home although the other children admire John's athletic ability.

After the diagnosis of deafness was made at age 2, the parents refused to accept the deafness and made the usual rounds trying to

find someone who would tell them that Johnny's hearing loss could be corrected. The parents felt that perhaps speech therapy would do the trick and Johnny would have no trouble speaking. Finally the parents resigned themselves to the fact that they had a deaf child and began to work toward helping him although even today this is

done in a somewhat mechanical, unenthusiastic manner.

In school Johnny is now reading second-grade material at a chronological age of 9. Most of the time he displays a marked inability to learn or comprehend yet at times comes forth with ideas that the other children have failed to get. He scored the lowest in his class (1.6) on a developmental reading test in 1959. He has a fair knowledge of basic arithmetic but is poor on material the class has had for months. He seems to avoid looking at the teachers for fear that he will learn something. He lacks the basic concepts of language. He cannot write or say the simplest sentence without assistance. He has a fair knowledge of the essentials of speech but does not use them spontaneously. His vocabulary is so limited that he lacks the names of the common environmental objects. He is not very fond of wearing and using his hearing aid so that he does not really use his residual hearing.

To sum it up, then, here is a boy with potentially above average intelligence with no organic handicap other than the cochlear deafness. Yet he is certainly a slow, poor learner as we have defined the term. Every teacher who has had him has failed to make any real headway. There are children like Johnny in every school for the deaf and, for that matter, in every school for hearing children. Every teacher of the deaf confronted with such children has said, "What is

wrong? How can I reach this child?"

I am afraid that the answers to these questions are difficult and obscure. But, there are a few things which stand out in Johnny's history and which give us some clues to the sources of difficulty. These items are:

Bed wetting, still, at age 9.

Early violent refusal to enroll or attend school.

Explosive temper.

Compulsive bathing and neatness. Avoidance of looking at teachers. Inability of parents to accept deafness.

As one looks over this list one is struck with the fact that these are all primarily symptoms of emotional instability and emotional

disturbance.

Having eliminated so many possible causal factors, we can now feel somewhat more secure in hazarding an "educated" guess as to the primary cause of Johnny's inability to learn at a normal pace. I would vote for the fact that Johnny simply was not psychologically ready or mature enough to begin formal speech, lipreading, reading, and language at the early age of 3 or 4. Dr. Mildred Groht (2), principal of the Lexington School for the Deaf, points out that the average hearing child of nursery age is neither physiologically nor psychologically ready for formal instruction. In her viewpoint the whole idea of a nursery school is to give the deaf child the same start in life that his hearing brothers and sisters receive. Miss Groht goes even further and suggests that the people in charge should be thoroughly trained nursery school teachers and not trained teachers of

the deaf however much they may love little children. "We, through enriched nursery school programs, should provide children with the common experiences necessary for their physical growth and for their emotional, social, and intellectual development."

Dr. Arnold Gesell (1) states,

We cannot teach a child anything at any time; we must defer to the stages of maturity which make up the ground plan. Training cannot transcend maturation.

Of course I can hear the anguished cries going up from teachers of the deaf who say, "That's all very fine but you can't afford to lose those early years without putting the deaf child hopelessly behind in the race to develop speech and language." This may be true, but in the case of the immature deaf child you may forever close the door to learning by forcing the issue at too early an age.

I might suggest that in a sense we have been forcing two extremes. There must be a middle road whereby parents of such immature children can be expertly counseled so that they may be helped to bring their children along toward greater maturity and earlier readiness for

learning.

Dr. Groht strikes the keynote when she points out that there is a place for tutoring in the preschool deaf nursery—but not for all 3-year-olds. Some children may be ready for lipreading immediately while others require a considerable number of weeks to get ready. Individual tutoring should be designed to lay a foundation for verbal communication of ideas.

In summary then these suggestions would be advanced to avoid the problem of the "slow learning" deaf child as defined here:

First, better facilities must be set up to provide complete and accurate, differential diagnosis.

Next, a great deal should be learned about the home and about

parent-child relationships.

Third, the young child should be evaluated in terms of his individual educational needs rather than in terms of how he will fit into a curriculum or method of teaching. His educational needs would have to be tailored around his maturity and his emotional makeup.

Fourth, expert counseling should be available at the preschool age levels to parents of children who appear likely to become educational problems. Such counseling should be offered by psychologically trained persons in cooperation with trained teachers of the deaf. Such counseling would have to deal with the feelings and attitudes of the parents toward their deaf child.

Educators of the deaf should welcome opportunities for interdisciplinary evaluation and staffing of deaf children. More and more we are realizing the contributions that other disciplines can make

toward the diagnosis and well-being of the deaf child.

There should be regular, periodic school staffing of deaf children

who are having learning difficulties.

With this careful attention to individual differences among deaf children and with carefully planned educational and psychological approaches to these individual differences it appears likely that we may be able to drastically reduce the incidence of slow learning deaf children in our schools.

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WORKSHOP REPORTS

WORKSHOP I-SLOW-LEARNING DEAF CHILD-EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

(Leader: Dr. George Leshin, hearing conservation supervisor, Oregon State Board of Health, Salem)

(Recorder: Mr. Albert C. Estebline, principal, Minnesota School, Fairbault)

The discussion was to be confined to the mentally retarded slow learner. Those who are considered to be slow learners because of other problems were not to be considered.

It was discussed and agreed upon that more research was needed in the area of the child with cortical deafness. Deaf children over 10 who have not developed language up to this point may never acquire language as an integral part of themselves, but those with cortical deafness may be an exception.

Some may be slow learners because of inexperienced teachers and improper teaching methods, and the need of teachers of long experience was stressed. Another point of view was that newer teachers with good training, youth, and enthusiasm had much to offer in this

More and improved diagnosis for this type child is needed. The question of how, where, and when this could best be done was considered. Possibilities are clinics at universities and hospitals and/or in the school personnel and outside trained personnel as available and The concensus was that the school setting was the better.

The matter of early education for deaf children versus the emotional problems sometimes caused by too early education was clarified with the explanation that early speech reading, speech and language development, is not formal education, and formal education should not be started until the child is physically and emotionally ready.

In developing language with the young deaf child those who demand only oral communication may be causing an unconscious rejection of the child by the parents. "I love you, but you must learn to talk and read lips so you will be normal." Natural gestures are acceptable, why not formal signs? Both are nonverbal forms of communication. There are many forms of nonverbal communication. When a mother holds her baby, there is communication. munication.

Representatives of a number of schools named the facilities that they had available for the diagnosis of the slow-learning deaf child. The question was raised as to the followthrough of the diagnosis. In most instances, no recommendations are made as to any way of overcoming the problem of educating the child.

Probably the most practical way to handle doubtful, educational cases for admittance to school is to admit them on a trial basis. They can be observed in the school setting and then a decision can be made as to whether or not the children can benefit from formal education.

It is important that we have more research on the slow learner and better diagnosis of his problems. Then we must find ways of implementing the results in the home and in the school.

WORKSHOP II-CURRICULUM FOR THE SLOW-LEARNING DEAF CHILD

(Leader: Miss Eloise Kennedy, supervising teacher, New Mexico School, Santa Fe)

(Recorder: Mr. Albert Pimentel, teacher, Porterville, Calif.)

This workshop opened with a clarification of the term "slow learn-After some discussion it was agreed that we were limiting our topic to children who are slow learners because of below average mentality and children who learn at a slower rate than their peers for reasons other than low mentality. The following points were discussed as presented. It has been, and in some places still is, the custom to put slow-learning deaf children through a watered down, reduced speed version of the same program that is provided for deaf children of average or superior ability. Fourteen-year-olds may be found in classes of 6-year-olds because the academic level is similar. The following year the 6-year-old may go on, leaving the older, slower child to struggle along the next year with the next class of younger, brighter children. Is there any justification for this? Is there any common academic problem except that the older children may know only the same number of words and be able to write only about the same simple language?

In terms of individual differences and needs we have probably done a very poor job of teaching the slow-learning deaf. Most of us are aware of the problem, but there are certainly practical considerations which make a special program difficult. Help has been sought from those who deal with slow-learning hearing children, but they are usually appalled at the difficulties of teaching deaf children of good intelligence and have had little to offer for the slower deaf. Their approach to their children is usually an auditory one and without

it they feel at a complete loss.

We should consider the characteristics of a slow-learning deaf

1. He cannot remember very well.

2. He cannot associate ideas or draw conclusions—analysis and synthesis are poor.

3. He cannot make wise decisions.

4. He is often rejected by brighter children.

5. He may have poor coordination.6. He may have emotional problems.

7. He will probably never be able to deal with the abstract.

8. He may be dependent on others all his life, but

9. He is going to need food, clothing, companionship, as much as anyone in spite of his limitations.

What should guide us in setting up a program for slow-learning deaf?

1. It should be concrete, appealing to the remaining senses.

2. It should be vivid, interesting, attractive.

3. It should be practical, geared to his adult potential, for he is never likely to be able to concentrate on future planning or contribute much to his own self-development.

4. It should emphasize his abilities rather than his deficiencies.
5. It should permit a feeling of success at least part of the time. Even the dullest must suffer from their frequent failure in competition with children half their age.

 It should require active physical participation in all activities.

We need to identify these children at an early age. At the end of the first year of school the teacher is aware of wide differences in a class of deaf children. Careful study should be made of the reasons for poor achievement. Is it a communication problem? Is it an emotional problem? Is it poor environment, lack of stimulation outside of school, general immaturity? If these factors are ruled out and careful testing indicates a really poor mental function, we should begin to revise this child's curriculum.

Speech, speech reading, must be worked on, but he will be limited in what he can say or understand. Reading and writing are important to anyone whose hearing loss precludes normal speech. The usual practical vocabulary and beginning language must be worked on, but we should keep in mind that his reading potential as a slow learner is low, and this is further limited by his deafness. In any case, the method should always fit the child, not fit the child to the method.

What shall he read? It seems a little ridiculous to let him reach his reading limit on "Dick and Jane," "Jack and Janet," and so forth. Some sources of materials on easy reading level in science are:

Scott-Foresman.
 Lyons and Carnahan.

Reader's Digest graded readers.
 Science research associate material.

Certainly he needs number consciousness and some use of numbers. Real money should be worked with. Some suitable activities at each level are:

1. Arithmetic games made by teachers.

2. Recording sports activities like baseball players averages, and so forth.

3. Games using dice.

4. Concrete problems rewritten from regular tests.

Language work should never be mere drill. It must be clear, useful, introducing new, functional vocabulary. We must remember that mastery of a few simple language principles is better for him than confused ideas of more involved language. Some possibilities are:

Use Fitzgerald key and related parts of speech to colors.
 Language developed from field trips, signs on streets, and so forth.

Perhaps the greatest need of these children is the experience program. Brighter deaf children can read about or be told about places and activities they have never experienced, but the slow child must see it, taste it, touch it, smell it. He cannot be held to the reading, lan-

guage, and vocabulary work that the child of normal intelligence is expected to do in connection with an experience. We should strive for the best possible language without frustrating the child. We can borrow from the field of mental retardation in the language development area. There are many learning activities that do not require language. Above all, we should keep the slow-learning deaf child moving educationally without requiring perfect language.

The slow-learning deaf child is not likely to achieve much facility

The slow-learning deaf child is not likely to achieve much facility in expressing himself verbally, yet he may feel a need for such expression. For many this will come through various arts and craft media.

A strong physically healthy deaf child should be prepared to become self-supporting as far as possible, either on his own or in sheltered employment. For this reason it is especially unfortunate to keep older children in a class with younger children where they are deprived of experience with the tools of adult life. It is true that shop teachers in a school for the deaf do not want slow children in a regular shop and we cannot blame them. Schools must find other ways of giving these slow students experience on a simplified level.

Experience in buying necessities, values, quantities, use of money, savings, must be taught specifically by visits to business houses. How to ask for a job, how to get in contact with vocational services, must be

taught not only to the student but to his family.

It is unfortunate that janitor work and house cleaning are rejected by schools for the deaf as worthwhile occupations when trained people in these areas are so much in demand. A slow deaf person is not likely to be employed in these jobs if the person hiring him has to train him, but one who has had preparation for such employment should have little trouble in finding a job. He can learn to take great pride in good work. Some training activities for boys and girls are:

1. Good training in dorms, schools, and so forth, offers possibility of developing good work habits which carry over to

unskilled work.

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2. Names of tools, elementary vocational training need not be

done in a formal vocational setting.

Slow-learning deaf people are sometimes easily led into difficulties with society. The school should provide training in good social, moral, and civic behavior to preclude mistakes after the student leaves school. This must be much more specific than the usual guidance given the other students. Role playing should be helpful. He should be taught his rights as well as his responsibilities.

It is likely that many slow-learning deaf adults suffer much physical pain because of lack of information about health and medical services or inability to explain their physical problems. Various doctors, dentists, and nurses are part of most school staffs, but the slow student

needs to know where he can find them out of school.

Recreational activities are important but somewhat limited for the slower deaf. The school coach soon recognizes the student who cannot think fast enough to excel in competitive sports in spite of good physical development.

WORKSHOP III-COUNSELING AND VOCATIONAL PLANNING

(Leader: Dr. Lloyd W. Graunke, superintendent, Tennessee School, Knoxville)

(Recorder: Mr. GORDON HARLAND, teacher, Arizona School, Tucson)

1. What is being done for the slow-learning deaf student?

Some schools, such as the California School at Berkeley, provide separate classes, headed by deaf teachers with a great deal of initiative. These classes are geared to the needs of these students through practical courses, such as "language at the bank," "language at the store," and "language when you are host." Deaf teachers seem to have a greater insight into their problems and are better obeyed by deaf youth.

2. What is the counseling program for these people?

At the Michigan School, parental counseling is begun 4 years before the youth leaves school. This is done early in order that the parents may be conditioned to the child's eventual vocational capabilities.

Vocational rehabilitation may provide a much-needed service for these people and such service is utilized in some parts of the country.

The group felt there was a definite need for vocational followup after the person leaves school. This helps to settle problems which arise on the job. If such problems can be resolved at an early date.

a greater degree of success is realized.

The Lexington Avenue School begins the vocational guidance with its students at age 16, in which parents are included. The next phase of the program embraces the vocational rehabilitation officials. Here the person is given advice in vocational adjustment, job evaluation, job application, and placement.

The Tower system of vocational rehabilitation was briefly mentioned wherein it is a system of experiments in work sampling, which might be adopted for the deaf. This is being done by the New York

Institute of Rehabilitation under Dr. Howard Rusk.

We are constantly reminded in our discussion that we must be familiar with each child as to his skills and limitations before an effective counseling program can begin. Furthermore, realistic goals must be used.

A great deal of thought must go into the establishment of goals. This can best be done by vocational education specialists in the area of the deaf after their careful survey of a given geographical area.

One member of our group offered the comment at this point that her university professor in this field spent her summers investigating job opportunities for the mentally retarded by first taking the job herself. For example, these jobs were wiping lipstick off drinking glasses, stringing tea bags, and stamping labels on clothing. Others in the group reported that slow learning deaf boys became respectable citizens and union members by doing superior work in cleaning printing presses, a job considered below that of the position of other workers in print shops.

Deaf schools provide services to its students by orientation classes. Deaf people from the business world come and explain forcefully what is expected of these people as employees. Though the students had been told this many times by their teachers, much more attention was given to it when it came from a deaf adult businessman or worker

outside the school.

Another plan is being proposed by one school to be called VIP Day. A successful graduate of the school is to be featured at a very popular day for the students. The alumnus will give an account of his success story and attempt to impress the younger people with those things which help to promote success.

The present lack of job counseling among the deaf is of major consequence. Also, what job counseling that is done, is often down-

grading to the deaf.

3. Are sheltered workshops the answer to the needs of the slow learn-

ing deaf person?

The goal of sheltered workshops is the relative independence of the individual through productive work. This compensates through personal satisfaction, income, though low, structured program with close supervision, and on a noncompetitive basis in the open market.

The goal is to achieve working conditions above the sheltered workshop level, but counselors and others must remember that for some

workers, this is terminal.

4. What are the goals of social adjustment for these people?

Socially, the goals should be that of their age groups. However, in this case partial custody of the slow learning deaf for personal management is sometimes necessary. Repeated cases could be cited where slow learning people have earned living wages only to have unscrupulous persons "fleece" them when they received their wages.

5. What other custodial relationships are needed by certain of these

deaf young people?

Out-of-school counseling is apparently needed by those who need help in obtaining their first driver's license, and subsequent desire for a car. Others present related the efforts expended in helping find initial employment for these deaf people, only to learn a short time later they were again unemployed. It was felt a closer contact with these young people would aid the adjustment, and thus help them

become more stable in their work.

Other counseling services are available through proper association with State and National deaf organizations. Also, a great need exists in marriage counseling and religious counseling above and beyond that which is included in the physical and mental health programs of our schools for the deaf. The latter counseling programs are not readily accomplished by this school-aged group. It must be over an extended period of time. One cannot lose sight of the fact that these people cannot assimilate this counseling rapidly and become the responsibility of those in whom they confide.

TUESDAY, JUNE 27, 1961

COUNCIL ON EDUCATION OF THE DEAF

2 n.m.

Primary Building—Presiding: Dr. S. Richard Silverman, director, Central Institute for the Deaf, St. Louis, Mo.

Members present:

A. G. Bell Association for the Deaf:

S. Richard Silverman, director, Central Institute for the Deaf, St.

Mary E. Numbers, supervising teacher, the Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Mass. (Miss Numbers was appointed by Dr. George Pratt as special representative of the A. G. Bell Association for this meeting to provide a quorum.)

Conference of Executives of American School for the Deaf:

William J. McClure, superintendent, Indiana School for the Deaf, Indianapolis.

Edmund B. Boatner, superintendent, American School for the Deaf,

West Hartford, Conn.

Leonard M. Elstad, president, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C. Marshall S. Hester, superintendent, New Mexico School for the Deaf, Santa Fe.

Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf:

Richard G. Brill, superintendent, California School for the Deaf, Riverside.

Lloyd A. Ambrosen, superintendent, Maryland School for the Deaf, Frederick.

David Mudgett, deaf teacher, Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville.

Others present.

Powrie V. Doctor, editor, American Annals of the Deaf.

Roy M. Stelle, next president, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

Members of council not present:

A. G. Bell Association for the Deaf:

George T. Pratt. Jerome F. Donovan. Clarence D. O'Connor.

Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf: C. Joseph Giangreco.

President S. Richard Silverman opened the meeting at 2:30 p.m. with a brief résumé of types of correspondence he had been carrying on pertaining to the CED which illustrated that the organization is already becoming recognized by other organizations and groups. Examples included correspondence with a group in Kentucky pertaining to the establishment of an oral class for deaf children, a group in Iowa concerned with methods of communication, a contribution of a letter to be included in a book of letters for Harley Z. Wooden, retiring executive secretary of the Council for Exceptional Children, and correspondence regarding the unfavorable image of deaf people created by a character in a comic strip.

One of the objectives of the CED is to develop mechanisms for receiving foreign groups. President Silverman proposed that a directory be developed which would be arranged geographically and which would have a one-paragraph description, submitted by the agency, of what is to be seen at each place and whether facilities are available for housing guests. This directory would be cross indexed. It was suggested that the editors of the Annals and of the Volta Review explore the possibility of the International Cultural Association (ICA) or

some other group sponsoring this.

Lloyd Ambrosen had been appointed to represent the CED at the Workshop on Community Development Through Organization of and for the Deaf which met at Fort Monroe, Va., in April 1961. Mr. Ambrosen reported on the workshop.

The following two resolutions were submitted by the workshop to the CED:

1. Instruction in civic responsibilities.—The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and the Alexander Graham Bell Association are informed that it is recommended that the schools for the deaf include in their curriculums a course on civic responsibility of the deaf, with particular emphasis on their duties and obligations to the organizations of the deaf.

2. Role of the professional organizations.—The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf and the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf are to be informed that the adult deaf endorse the concept of developing

social services for the deaf as brought out by this workshop and that their cooperation is desired in developing a better understanding of our mutual problems, needs, and aspirations.

These resolutions were received, discussed, and accepted by the CED. Dr. Silverman and Dr. Doctor, who will serve as the executive secretary of the International Congress or Conference on Education of the Deaf (ICED), had spent considerable time previous to this meeting in working out plans for the ICED to be held June 23–28, 1963. These plans were reported to the CED. Certain basic principles were stated as follows:

1. The cochairmen of the ICED (Silverman and Elstad) take

full responsibility for the meeting.

2. Each committee will have cochairmen.

3. There will be two kinds of professional contributions:

(a) Invited.(b) Contributed.

4. The focus will be on the education of deaf children.

(a) Peripheral topics must relate to education of deaf children.

5. Sessions:

(a) Plenary sessions will be held in the mornings with invited papers.

(b) Sectional meetings will be held in the afternoons with contributed papers.

6. Participants and papers:

(a) Wherever possible primary sources of information will be called upon.

(b) Documentation of all that is presented will be encouraged.

The planning analyzed jobs to be done and a list of committees was made to carry out these jobs. The original list, which is tentative, is as follows:

(1) Program.

(2) Local arrangements.

(3) Finance.

(4) Public relations.

(5) Editorial:

(a) Edit program; abstract papers before meeting and print in four languages.

(b) Edit proceedings.

(6) Translation:

(a) Simultaneity of foreign languages.

(b) Interpretation manually.

(7) Relations with other organizations:
 (a) Committees of foreign groups.
 (b) Relations with American organizations

(b) Relations with American organizations.

(8) Executive committee.

Dr. Silverman and Dr. Doctor had listed the names of 80 people in the profession who they believe are capable, knowledgeable, and willing. From this list, with additions, will be drawn the staff to prepare the ICED. Certain names were discussed for the cochairmanship of the various committees listed above.

The overall plan for the program was diagramed by Dr. Silverman. The ICED will open on Sunday, June 23, 1963, with registration and the various ceremonials appropriate to launching such a meeting. Monday will be devoted to assessment and would include assessment in such areas as physiological, psychological, educational, communication, social, and economic. Tuesday will be devoted to teaching of means of communication. These would include speech, lipreading, manual alphabet, signs, and hearing. Wednesday will be devoted to the teaching of language and reading. Thursday will be devoted to other parts of the curriculum including numbers, science,

social studies, aesthetics, and vocational.

As was indicated under basic principles, the morning sessions will be devoted to plenary sessions where invited speakers who are authorities in their field will be able to summarize the knowledge, raise the questions, and express opinions. The afternoons will have subsections scheduled with contributed papers on various phases of the general area. Also scheduled in the afternoons will be various sections not easily classified under general plenary session topics, dealing with administration and organization, automated teaching, libraries, teacher education, liguistics, guidance, captioned films, religion, social work, genetics of deafness, multiple handicaps, and others.

Friday will be devoted to demonstrations of the items that had

been discussed the previous 4 days.

The tentative evening events are as follows: Monday, a reception at possibly the Pan-American Union with the Ambassadors from the various countries represented as guests; Tuesday, a program to be presented by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in their new building; Wednesday, devoted to meetings of the various organizations and square dancing for the foreign visitors; Thursday, the formal ICED banquet at a major hotel with a world famous guest speaker; Friday, a dramatic presentation by the Gallaudet College players.

Dr. Marshall Hester moved that plans for the ICED as presented by Dr. Silverman be approved with commendation. This motion was

seconded and passed unanimously.

Dr. E. B. Boatner reported briefly on the work on the revision of J. L. Smith's book on idioms. He indicated that a good revision was a major project and financial support such as that provided by a

foundation might be necessary.

President Silverman commented on the Federal legislation pertaining to teacher preparation in the area of the deaf. He pointed out the importance of our profession having a document that does not confine a description of professional preparation solely to credit hours but contains a detailed exposition of the knowledge and skills essential for preparation and the principles related to acquiring them.

The next meeting of the CED will be held at Austin, Tex., at the time of the meeting of the conference of executives of American

schools for the Deaf during the week of April 1-6, 1962.

The meeting was adjourned at 5:30 p.m.

TUESDAY, JUNE 27, 1961

VISUAL EDUCATION

4 p.m.

Discussion: Captioned Films for the Deaf.

Lindstrom Hall East—Section Leader: Mr. John A. Gough, specialist, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Interpreter: R. M. McAdams.

Captioned Films has now been in operation as an active distributor of movies for approximately 18 months. At the present time the service has more than 500 registered groups of deaf persons on its books. Film use is increasing rapidly and is reaching from 7,000 to 8,000 people per month. The film collection now embraces 45 titles, and 56 new subjects are in the process of preparation. These will be announced as they become available for use.

In addition to the above pictures, most of which might be termed cultural or educational, we are presently captioning 13 educational films in the area of science. These will first be tried out in a number of selected schools throughout the United States and will later be

made generally open for booking.

Other areas of interest where we are making a small beginning on educational films include driver training and traffic safety, physical education and sports, and adult education. Because of limitation of funds these beginnings will be little more than token moves. The great demand for films by all ages necessitates that we hold to films of the widest possible appeal for the present.

Looking toward the future, the Captioned Films program has two sets of objectives. The first of these sets of aims is predicated on the law as it now exists and the present state of limited financing. These

include:

1. Expansion of the present library, largely in terms of films that will serve the greatest number of groups of the deaf. This means feature and medium length pictures with family appeal.

2. A limited exploration of the possibilities presented by circulation of filmstrips. The possibility of recaptioning some of these in order to make them more readily understood will be given careful study.

3. Promotional services to acquaint more deaf people with the film service and to engage their active participation in the program will be carried on within the limits imposed by our small

staff.

A second group of objectives presupposes some important changes in the captioned film law which will enable the service to assume larger and more varied functions. These contemplated changes would, first of all, remove the present ceiling authorized under Public Law 85–905, the law under which we now operate. A second change would, in general, broaden the scope of the law so that it might serve the needs

of the deaf in a much more comprehensive manner. Specifically these activities under such a revised act might include the following:

1. Production of films dealing with the special problems of the

deaf and those who work with and for them.

(a) Special educational films dealing with such matters as the language arts, vocational arts and sciences, physical education, and health.

(b) Training films in specific vocations for the use of the

adult deaf.

(c) Training films for the use of those who work professionally with the deaf as well as for employers and super-

visory personnel who may employ or supervise deaf workers.

(d) Training and informational films for parents including materials that could be used in the home during vacation times to help children advance even though not under formal school instruction.

2. Applied research in a number of technical matters such as: (a) Development of dual projection techniques. This could conceivably simplify the captioning process greatly

and effect real economies in production costs.

(b) Effective use of a variety of special photographic techniques and processes such as animation, high-speed and slow-motion photography, and others.

(c) Effective use of the sound element in motion pictures

for better auditory training.

(d) Adaptation for the use of the deaf of such devices as the controlled reader, overhead projectors, and continuous projection.

 (e) The use of television.
 (f) The relation of films to programs involving use of teaching machines,

3. Extension services.

(a) The training of teachers in service and in training cen-

ters through use of filmed materials.

(b) Cooperative efforts with schools and State departments in the matter of curriculum development, particularly as related to visual education.

(c) Continuous survey of printed and other teaching materials and evaluation of the same in terms of serviceability for use with the deaf, and the correlation of these materials with

visual aid which might be adapted or produced.

Admittedly, this is a long-range program. No doubt other objectives will emerge as we move forward on these important fronts. May I close by suggesting that the rate at which we move will depend in large degree upon the interest evinced in the field, the degree of effectiveness with which your wants and needs are made known, the imagination and zeal which are brought to bear upon the problems, and the dedicated effort for which teachers of the deaf are well known. May we live up to the best of that tradition in a cooperative endeavor which will help to bring a richer education and a broader culture for the deaf of all ages.

(Following these remarks, the group viewed the captioned film "Rockets—How They Work.")

TUESDAY, JUNE 27, 1961

CIVILIAN DEFENSE

Lindstrom Hall.-Section Leader: Mr. Thomas Lepine, specialist, Social Administration.

4-5 p.m.

Selected Audience

Chairman: Paul C. Howard, Chief. Presentation: Wichita Civil Defense Program for the Deaf, Roger Falberg, executive secretary, Wichita Social Services for the Deaf, Wichita, Kans. General Discussion: Paul C. Howard, OCDM officials, Roger Falberg.

What are the personal requirements of our deaf citizens in terms of material devices, instruction, and information materials in order that they may be prepared in time of national emergency? Items of particular consideration are:

Warning devices.

Warning signals and what they mean.

Community emergency plans.

Protection by shelter. First aid and home preparedness. Ways of receiving conelrad instructions.

Recorder: Albert B. Davis. Interpreter: Louis M. Boley.

Mr. Howard. In view of the very full convention agenda you have this week, it is indeed gratifying to see so many here—indicating that you, as we, are concerned with the need for our deaf citizens to be

prepared should a national emergency arise.

We want this to be a completely informal session—I'm sure it will be a productive one in terms of providing us, at the Federal governmental level, with the personal knowledge which you have of the needs of the deaf from a civil preparedness standpoint. With that background and insight, we would hope to be able to proceed with a national program of guidance and assistance to States and communities and professional groups such as your own, aimed at fulfilling those needs and thus achieving our emergency preparedness goal.

Before starting our general discussion today, we are most fortunate to have with us Mr. Roger Falberg. As I told you yesterday, Mr. Falberg is the executive secretary of the Wichita Social Services for the Deaf, which group has been actively interested in civil defense for some time. Mr. Falberg has most kindly agreed to tell you of some of the activities in which they have been engaged, and, so it is

with pleasure that I present him at this time, Mr. Falberg.

WICHITA CIVIL DEFENSE PROGRAM FOR THE DEAF

(ROGER FALBERG, executive secretary, Wichita Social Services for the Deaf, Wichita, Kans.)

Inherent in the philosophy of the Wichita Social Services for the Deaf is a strong inclination toward individual assistance and casework rather than group work. It should be understood by the reader that we recognize and respect the social and recreational programs of organizations of the deaf in Wichita, and have not and will not make any effort to duplicate these.

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We feel, however, that it is within our province to offer educational programs to the deaf of Wichita which other organizations of the deaf, for some reason or other, have not or are not able to undertake.

Kansas is well known as the "Cyclone State," and tornado warnings during the spring and early summer months are quite frequent. Originally we set out to see that, wherever possible, deaf Wichitans

receive adequate tornado warnings via their television sets.

Quite naturally, the local civil defense headquarters is also concerned with civilian safety during tornadoes. We approached Mr. Bill Friesen, director of the local civil defense headquarters, and requested his cooperation in approaching local television stations and giving a program to our people with the aid of an interpreter regarding procedure and safety rules during tornado warnings. The possibility of a full course in civil defense for the deaf was discussed at this time, and it was decided that the inauguration of such a program would depend upon how well attended the initial programs were and whether or not the deaf expressed a desire for further programs.

The first program held on March 25, 1960, was attended by an estimated 75 persons; approximately 57 percent of the 130 adults in Sedgwick County. Mr. Friesen showed two films, the first on tornadoes and the second depicting a practice evacuation of the city of Portland, Oreg. It is difficult to imagine a similar segment of the general population envincing comparable interest, and one would be justified in the assumption that this turnout proves deaf adults welcome and will respond to educational programs suited to their needs

and planned with them in mind.

The response was so gratifying that further programs were arranged. On May 16, Mr. Vernon Clark, Mr. Friesen's assistant, took charge of the program and acted as instructor for all subsequent programs for the deaf. At the second meeting, he showed films on the effects of an A-bomb blast in a mock city erected in a Nevada desert, and another film graphically explaining radioactivity. Again, the program was well attended, although the total number of persons declined to about 50.

During this program, Mr. Clark asked whether any of the audience was interested in taking an intensive course in civil defense training, with major emphasis upon "home preparedness." About a dozen persons expressed interest, and it was agreed that a meeting would be held at the civil defense underground control center at the municipal

airport in June.

Again, around 50 persons were at the airport on June 10 when Mr. Clark gave them a tour of the center and explained how, in the event of enemy attack, defense operations for central Kansas would be di-

rected from this center.

Shortly after this, Mr. Clark became ill and it was necessary to postpone further training programs until September 14. On that date, intensive training for home preparedness in the event of enemy attack began at the local civil defense headquarters. A group of about 15 met for 2 hours 1 night each week for 5 weeks and qualified for civil defense certificates at the end of the course.

Beyond mentioning that home preparedness constituted the basis for the entire program, we will not delve further into technical details of course content at this time, inasmuch as courses offered by civil defense headquarters throughout the Nation are similar and have been outlined by more qualified personnel on this program. We will concern ourselves, instead, with the reaction of our people to the program, and to Mr. Clark's later comments concerning the need for

specific techniques in working with the deaf.

On the surface, the major problem of the deaf in civil defense planning appears to be the question of how he is to be warned in the event of enemy attack. Taped warnings cannot be shown on television screens in the same way as tornado warnings are now shown in Wichita. All television broadcasting must cease at the first sign of enemy attack. Otherwise, the beams would be used by enemy bombers

to locate major targets.

Inasmuch as this program took place prior to the announcement of the development of the NEAR indoor attack warning device, no satisfactory solution to the problem of adequate warning could be found other than; (1) personal requests by the deaf that hearing neighbors warn them to take shelter; (2) keeping radios in the home for use of hearing children of deaf parents during emergencies; and (3) requesting that conclude announcers remind listeners that a deaf person may live nearby who must rely upon neighbors for adequate warning.

Still, the concern of the deaf with civil defense extends far beyond the matter of a mere warning, whether through NEAR or via his hearing neighbors and coworkers. The warning of itself is of little use to the deaf individual unless he is thoroughly prepared beforehand. "Forewarned is forearmed" is true only if the means of defense

are known.

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This is true, of course, of every citizen. However, it is particularly true of the deaf citizen for, at the time of actual emergency, conelrad announcers will be reciting basic defense measures, emergency escape routes, and the nearness of enemy planes for the benefit of civilian listeners. The hearing listener, even if he has had absolutely no training before the emergency, can still obtain the rudiments of self-preservation know-how via conelrad; but the deaf man without previous training is virtually helpless—regardless of how well he is warned in advance of the emergency. His hearing neighbor or NEAR can warn him, but no one is going to sit down for a couple of hours and tell him how to protect himself when enemy planes are minutes away.

The things discussed in the "home preparedness" course as conducted by Mr. Clark are especially pertinent to the protection of the individual's family. Mr. Clark decries the generally pervading feeling that there is "no use in being prepared—no one will survive anyway!" It is his contention that if adequate shelters are available, if the shelters are properly equipped, and if the persons using them know what to expect in the way of radiation exposure and duration, etc., a large portion of our civilian population can survive an atomic

war.

This, more than anything else, impressed the deaf participants. Undertaking the construction of a fallout shelter in the backyard is, to be sure, nothing to be done lightly because of the great expense. Indeed, there are very, very few home shelters in the United States, and none of the Wichita deaf have as yet built one. However, refresher courses in order to keep the trainees abreast of recent develop-

ments (such as NEAR) in civil defense are planned for this coming fall, and it is hoped that further motivation toward shelter-build-

ing will result.

Asked whether he found it necessary to use any special techniques in working with the deaf group, Mr. Clark said that perhaps the only specification would be an interpreter who is himself enthusiastic about civil defense. In our own case, he added that Mrs. Dale Batson, hearing daughter of deaf parents, probably did more than anything else to inspire group enthusiasm because of her own tremendous interest in the program. He feels that a disinterested, nonparticipat-

ing interpreter cannot instill interest in his listeners.

Otherwise, he used the same materials and showed the same films he uses with hearing groups; and felt that understanding of the subject was as good, if not better, than that of hearing groups. It should be noted here that the CD program relies heavily on films, and it is necessary that lighting arrangements be made so that the interpreter can be clearly seen when the room is darkened for film showing. However, the action in the films so graphically demonstrates what is being said that an interpreter can easily sum up the highlights of the film at the end of the showing if adequate lighting is difficult to arrange. On nearly all important points to remember, the CD films already have simple and easy-to-understand titles "built-in."

When the Wichita program was concluded, the other CD local headquarters somehow got wind of what had been done, and Mr. Clark and Mr. Friesen received a great deal of mail requesting information on how the program had been arranged. One major difficulty, it seems, is contacting the deaf in the community where the CD head-

quarters is located.

While the Wichita Social Services for the Deaf provided a ready-made instrument to bring CD program to the deaf of the community, it is the only social service of its type in the Nation. Yet there already exists another way of contacting the deaf in most large communities—the local club. Once club officials and CD officials can be brought together, means of inaugurating the program can easily be worked out.

This means, of course, that club officials and leaders of the deaf will have to take the initiative; for clubs of the deaf are not found in local telephone directories and in many instances the club's name and address is entirely unknown to anyone in the community except the deaf themselves. In contrast, the address of the local CD headquarters can be found quite readily by either consulting the directory or by inquiring at almost any city or county office.

How does a school for the deaf it into this picture, and what can instructors of the deaf do to help create awareness of the need for

civil defense?

Many things, the writer believes. First of all, it is a common thing to find an unusually high proportion of deaf people located in the town or city where a residential school for the deaf is situated. Programs for the deaf adults in civil defense could be held at the school—just as a starter. Of course, some type of program of preparedness should be given to the school's pupils. For example, how many schools for the deaf have held drills to show the pupils what to do in case of enemy air attack?

If, in a community that has no school for the deaf, deaf adult residents wish to avail themselves of CD programs but cannot find an interpreter, the residential school in that State should volunteer to provide one. It is believed that the CD people should pay the expenses of the interpreter (as they did in Wichita); and the school would be

rendering a valuable public service.

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As an afterthought not entirely related to the present topic, might this not be the ideal way to provide impetus for a more far-reaching plan for adult education for the deaf man in the street, with residential schools providing the teachers? Granted there is a shortage of teachers, there is a shortage of money, there is a shortage of just about everything in schools for the deaf; but is it impossible to try to do what we can with what we have?

In conclusion, let us stress once more that CD training is vital if our Nation is to survive an atomic war, and that thorough preparedness in addition to adequate warning is essential to the needs of the deaf adult in the event of national emergency. CD stands ready and willing to help—but they need the help of deaf leaders of the deaf and the personnel in residential schools for the deaf in getting and maintaining contact with deaf people in their community before they can begin to do the job they are capable of doing.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 28, 1961

SOCIAL STUDIES

Primary building—Section leader: Mr. Kendall Litchfield, principal, New York School, White Plains.

9-9:45 a.m.

Keynote speaker: Dr. Theodore L. Shay, professor, Department of Political

Science, Willamette University, Salem, Oreg. Interpreter: Harvey Christian.

10-11:45 a.m.

Morning session of workshops:

A. Intermediate level:

Betty Phillips, New York School. Interpreter: Harvey Christian, Jack Staehle, New York School. Interpreter: Mrs. William Fair.

B. Advanced level:

James Hoxie, Washington School. Virginia Heidinger, New York School. Interpreter: Mrs. Mabel W. Nilson. Eldon Shipman, West Virginia School.

1:15 p.m.

Business meeting.

2:15 p.m.

Afternoon session of workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

THE VALUE OF CURRENT EVENTS IN A SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

(JACK M. STAEHLE, supervising teacher, New York School, White Plains)

There are three main reasons for the emphasis on social studies found in a school's curriculum:

1. All pupils need a knowledge of their own history to perform adequately as citizens in our age of changing values and competing philosophies. From their study of the past comes an understanding of the present and, hopefully, some direction for the future

2. Each pupil is given an opportunity to learn to appreciate and understand the world in which our Nation has emerged as the spiritual and economic leader in the struggle for peace and freedom. Knowledge of the past is essential for the future.

3. There is need for developing thinking citizens capable of solving their own problems as well as those of their society, intelligently. Here, scientific methods are applied to the study of the social sciences so that pupils will learn the skills required to make decisions on the basis of fact rather than propaganda, objective data rather than prejudice and bias.

Pupils begin at the primary grades learning about the environment with which they are most familiar—their home, their school, their neighborhood, and their community. As they advance in grade their horizons are broadened to include knowledge about their county, State, Nation, and the whole world.

"Learning in history and geography depends upon the imagination." This statement was made by a professor of educational psychology at a large Midwestern university. The same mental processes are used in various subjects but when we consider social studies in comparison with other elementary subjects—for example, reading and writing—we find that the former are introduced to the pupil in a manner beyond his immediate experience. In social studies the child is required to live through experiences which are remote in time from his life and distant from him in place. Thus, social studies are an extension of experience through imagination.

In history the pupil learns about the lives of people in the past, and in geography he learns about places and people who exist on other parts of the earth than that in which his home is situated. The mental process by which he is able to carry in mind the thought of distant or remote events, persons, and places is called imagination. The program which I am about to discuss is a means of tying the past and the distant with the present and the near and thus leave less to the imagination of the pupil.

Beginning approximately at the age of 9, children enter some vigorously social years and during this period of time they are truly cheated unless their intellectual experiences keep pace with their growing horizons. Harold V. Baker in "Children's Contributions in Elementary School General Discussion" says that he found that "spontaneous conversation recorded in fourth and in sixth grades uses the whole world as a geographic stage". He also points out an omnipresent interest in current affairs. Mr. Baker states, "It is worthy to note that no spontaneous comments were directed to events more than a week old."

In the light of this background information I shall discuss a portion of the total social studies course which we'll call current events.

A CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAM

Before the pupils arrive in the morning the teacher writes on the panel of blackboard reserved solely for that purpose the news items heard on the radio or seen on the television screen that morning prior to coming to school. (Right here it should be said that to have the program about to be discussed a success it must be assigned to a teacher who is ambitious and who arrives at least 15 minutes before the pupils.) During the years that this current events program was being developed it was learned that writing the names of people and places in a different color of chalk was helpful. The teacher needs real discernment to select the suitable material and present it in a comprehensible manner. If this program is conducted by a teacher who has classes of different reading abilities the material should be written using a vocabulary understood by the children reading on the lowest level. The discussion which is carried on with each class is then developed in accordance with the pupils' abilities.

On one side of this panel of news it is necessary to have a bulletin board for pictures, perhaps from the morning paper, which illustrate the written material. It is advisable to have a morning paper delivered to the room ahead of the classes and one which is pictorial is a good choice. If no bulletin board is available in the area of the news panel, a strip of strong wrapping paper may be taped to the blackboard and the pictures attached with octo clips. This bulletin board must be kept up to date and attractive. Headlines and some printed material may be used occasionally. The bulletin board need not measure more than 18 to 24 inches in width and be the height

of the blackboard.

On the other side of the news items there should be a list of words which occur and are underlined in the daily presentations. These vocabulary words should be written in a different color of chalk with the meanings in the usually used color, and left on the board during the entire week. The words may be those the teacher realizes the majority of the children don't understand and also should include vocabulary peculiar to newspaper parlance. The latter should not be given too fast and they must be used repeatedly once they have been presented.

Chart paper which may be oak tag or even newsprint should be ruled in advance and hung somewhere in the room more or less permanently. Perhaps in red crayon the teacher could print "Who" at the top and then, as people's names appear in the daily news, these names are written on the chart. These charts are referred to often and can be a source for a speech reading lesson or a review of asking

and answering "Who" questions in a language lesson.

The "Where" charts are similar to the previously described "Who" charts. Since both names of people and places are written on the board in a contrasting color chalk the pupils learn to look to these charts to review names of people and places. Because the social studies classroom should be adequately equipped with all necessary maps and globes children soon learn to locate places which appear in the daily news items and geography becomes alive. As with the

"Who" questions, children learn to answer "Where" questions directly

and completely.

When a current events program is to be inauguarated the teacher should seek out every source of picture material. The covers of Time magazine are of good quality paper and also often in color. Colored newspaper pictures are occasionally available. Sometimes black and white newspaper pictures must be used temporarily. All pictures should be mounted on the same size oak tag for uniformity's sake, attractive mounting on bulletin boards, and for filing. If the teacher will collect pictures of all people whose names may appear in the news items at some time this will be to his great advantage. The teacher may wish to remove the name if it appears below the picture and write it on the back of the card with the person's current position, such as "Lyndon Johnson is the Vice President of the United States." Children may review this material alone in this manner or with another pupil. The alert teacher will be aware that his pictures are current, never allow the pictures to become outdated, ragged, or yellowed. These must be replaced if we call the subject current

The project connected with this subject can well be a scrapbook which each child makes. This encourages him to look at the newspapers available at school and at home if he is motivated to make his book complete. Children enjoy collecting at the age of 10 and upwards and this project will help fill their needs. Scrapbooks can be made in class of any material available. It is advisable to have this book in looseleaf form so that the child may replace one smaller or poorer picture with a better one. Under each person's picture should be a complete sentence telling who the person is. The first page of the book should be an index in which is listed the name of each person who has been studied in class. When the picture has been secured and pasted into the book, the number of the page on which his picture is found is indicated by the name. Children soon learn to share their pictures and good group morale is fostered.

Awards may be given in different ways for neatly completed books. Some children's marks may be raised in this manner if they show interest in creating a particularly good book. Parents also become interested in the project and good parent-child relations are

encouraged.

As soon as the class has assembled the items for the day are discussed. It will be found that the children will come in quietly and eagerly, sit down and read the news, or stop to look at the bulletin board. Children from other classes will soon be congregating to read this interesting information, also. It is wise to end each day's news items with a weather report. In this way children learn to understand weather report vocabulary and will enjoy reading the reports in the papers and have a better understanding of these reports on television.

In the news items the alert teacher soon learns to include material of general nature such as the historical significance of a holiday, the change of seasons, the myths connected with such days as ground hog day, or even the people in history associated with the ides of March. The teacher keeps an accurate day-by-day diary of the complete news items with vocabulary words underlined in a notebook.

Before the children leave the classroom they also copy the items in their entirety in a notebook for reference during the year. In order that the most important facts become fixed in the pupils' minds a review of each week's work by means of an oral or written lesson is essential. These drill lessons with both questions and answers in complete sentences should be kept with their dates by both teacher and children and these are referred to for the final examination.

The results of such a program can be only those of satisfaction to both teacher and pupils since everyone capable of understanding is interested in the material. Every good teacher of the deaf is primarily a teacher of reading and language, of speech and speech reading. The current events portion as well as the other social studies

material is presented as such lessons daily.

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Parents will tell you how pleased they are to see their children eagerly reading the newspaper and magazines for more mature material than the comics and the sports items. The deaf child will appreciate the fact that he is learning things his hearing peers know about and a visit to a social studies class in a public school will often

show your children that they are even better informed.

What is headline news for adults cannot always be given the children. This may apply more often to foreign news. The pupils' understanding of foreign peoples and customs is not enough advanced to allow them to comprehend these events with open minds. To illustrate this I can give an incident which actually happened. Some news was written regarding Russia and it appeared that it had been clarified. A few days later, on the basis of this certain news item, the literary society had conducted a debate and had decided that the United States should immediately declare war on Russia. Possible situations similar to this must be constantly kept in mind and prevented as far as possible.

Following demonstrations before civic clubs the children are often told that they have a surprisingly better knowledge of current events than hearing children their ages. Visitors are amazed at what the children know and how well they can carry on intelligent conversa-

tions about the happenings in the world.

Schools in the United States with a few exceptions have been criticized for their inadequate programs for teaching current affairs on the elementary and secondary levels. This criticism can be eliminated and our informed and intelligent children will become the voting citizens of tomorrow who can maintain our form of free democracy.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I-Intermediate Level

(Leaders: Miss Betty Phillips, New York School, White Plains; Mrs. Margaret Atwood, New Mexico School, Santa Fe)

(Recorder: CLAUDE GULBRANSON, South Dakota School, Sioux Falls)

Social studies concepts should begin at the time the child enters school. What is social studies?

1. Primary level.—The giving to the child of an awareness of his place in the home, school, and community.

2. Intermediate level .-

(a) Economies: Food, shelter, clothing, money, interdependence of man, production and consumption of goods and services.
(b) History: Local, State, national, and international; spe-

cial days.

(c) Geography: School, national, international, map skills, air, land, and water.

(d) Sociology: Social and cultural institutions.(e) Health and safety: As they are needed.

We recommend that social studies be incorporated into the primary program throughout the day, while on the intermediate level, it be given a large block of time every day.

WORKSHOP II-ADVANCED LEVEL

(Leader: James Hoxie, Washington School, Vancouver) (Recorder: Marie Lloyd, Washington School, Vancouver)

1. Curriculum.—We feel many children leave school without knowing enough about the 20th century because we spend so much time on early history. Some feel it better to separate history and geography,

while others prefer to combine the two subjects.

Most of us were agreed, however, that there is too much repetition from one grade to another, and that this slows up progress. It was suggested that most textbooks devote large sections to the development of history and transportation, and that this can be taught more thoroughly and much more rapidly through visual education (slides and movies) than by sticking to the text. The question was raised, "Do we waste time on too many facts?" It was felt that concrete learning situations which the children can apply to themselves are more apt to stick in children's memories than mere statistics.

2. Techniques for Teaching and Developing Interest.—The teacher of a slow class explained that he used 10 questions and answers daily

in his work, and that these were reviewed from time to time.

Bulletin boards can be of excellent value in keeping children abreast of current happenings. Too many hearing adults don't know where events are taking place. The use of maps and pictures, plus news items may help overcome this deficiency in our children.

Daily news items written on a special section of the blackboard by the teacher may encourage newspaper reading by the pupils.

Using interesting anecdotes helps keep interest alive. Stories "off the beaten path" will often remain with the children longer than mere facts from the text.

World News of the Week is a bulletin published in Chicago with maps, pictures, and information on a large sheet weekly. This stimulates interest and often brings in historical events as well as current events and geography.

Role-playing in the classroom and the preparation of special school

assemblies can also stimulate interest.

Teachers need to be alert to worthwhile questions posed by the students. These can often stimulate thinking and discussion by the class instead of being answered directly by the teacher.

3. Textbooks.—Most of the group was not particularly enthusiastic about the textbooks now in use. However, "Our America," by Town-

send, was recommended as being graphic and containing simple voca-

bulary. The Follet series has also been used with success.

4. Teaching of government.—Student government can be utilized to teach the fundamentals of government to our students. Nominations, compaigning, and elections held in the schools can help the children gain experience useful when they take their place as adult voters. Literary societies can also supplement this work. In school elections we should ask the children why they are supporting particular candidates and help them realize that friendship alone is not sufficient criteria for a vote.

When possible, visits to State legislatures make government more

real and alive for the students.

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5. Should social studies be taught at a particular time?—This seems to be a matter for administration to decide. We in advanced departments where we have rotating classes, cannot utilize the unit-study idea well, though we can sometimes combine geography and history, and can and should at all times be teaching language along with our subject matter.

WORKSHOP III-ADVANCED LEVEL

(Leader: Virginia Heidinger, New York School, White Plains) (Recorder: Ada Mundlinger, Western Pennsylvania School, Pittsburgh)

Each teacher of the group began by giving an idea of the social studies taught in their school. In the Washington school a basic text is used for social studies. The Idaho school begins with home-neighborhood-town and country. They use series of texts in advanced classes for social studies. In Los Angeles the deaf class curriculum must follow as closely as possible with the Los Angeles city schools. They must keep within the boundaries in order for the student to receive a diploma. Three semesters of social studies are required, including a study of the Constitution and government. The students must pass a State test. For the slow learning student the teachers had to prepare their own material. They also had to use down-graded material for normal deaf children.

The core curriculum was used in the Idaho School. The English and reading teachers used a unit on "The Oregon Trail," and found opportunity to teach social studies and other subjects. After working on the unit a month, it was culminated in an assembly program. They built a covered wagon, made costumes in sewing class, learned a

square dance, and served a pioneer meal to the students.

In the New York School a lot of practical subject matter was taught in social studies, such as banking, installment plan buying, job

applications, and applying for a social security card.

A lack of a course of study made it difficult to organize subject matter for social studies. Some schools required the teachers to report on work covered for the year to be given to the next teacher.

Some ideas given by teachers to make social studies more interesting.—The textbook provided for the study of South America was found to be uninteresting and outdated, so they wrote to the embassies of the countries in Washington and received valuable and interesting materials.

Current events such as elections and the astronaut, and the Civil War centennial provide opportunity for teaching democracy, voting, and so forth.

The various university centers on remedial reading provide bibliographies of books with high interest and low vocabulary level.

The city of Portland has a curriculum center that provides ideas for social studies in many areas.

It was felt that textbooks were not enough.

Using visual aids.—It was felt it had a valuable place in teaching social studies. One school had a filmstrip library with good films on social studies. These were good for teaching necessary social-studies vocabulary when the captions were explained as the films were shown.

Another teacher used color slides that teachers had taken on trips in teaching about certain areas. The students were interested because

the pictures were more personal.

The opaque projector can be well used in teaching social studies. Teaching moral values.—Children come from varied cultural backgrounds, and as we cannot inflict our own values on them, it is difficult to set up standards. Current events could be used to teach moral values, incidentally. All of this is difficult because the children are taught moral values in school, and go back to homes with low moral standards.

Committees.—There was some discussion on the use of committees in social studies work. In one course on teaching in units, the units were built around committees. It was felt that pure committee work was not too valuable with smaller deaf classes, but might be used in certain areas, such as a project of dramatization after a particular unit.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 28, 1961

SCIENCE

Primary building—section leader: Robert Clingenpeel, New Mexico School, Santa Fe.

9-9:45 a.m.

"Rethinking Science Education," Dr. Donald Stotler, science supervisor, Portland, Oreg., Public Schools.

Interpreter: Anne Davis.

9:45-10:30 a.m.

"National Science Foundation," Dr. Stanley E. Williamson, chairman, Department of Science Education, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oreg. Interpreter: Edward Scouten.

10:30-11:45 a.m.

Morning session of science workshops.

Workshop leaders:

Lawrence Barrett.

Recorder: Mrs. Grace Mudgett.

Interpreters: Ed Scouten, Robert Kelly, Anne Davis, Harold Ramger. Recorder: Wm. H. Brelje.

Interpreter: Polly Shahan.

1:15 p.m.

Business meeting.

2:15 p.m.

Afternoon session of science workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

RETHINKING SCIENCE EDUCATION

(Dr. DONALD STOTLER, science supervisor, Portland, Oreg., public schools)

INTRODUCTION

The school classroom and the research laboratory are evolving toward consistency in organization and aim. The individual observer is becoming the focal point of both enterprises, even when team learning is undertaken. In both enterprises the learning is being focused more directly upon strategies of inquiry needed for insight into natural phenomena—a more unified concept of the scheme of things. What are some of the reasons for this emerging consistency between science and education? What can be done to hasten this unification?

At the dawn of the 20th century Albert Einstein shook the science world by theorizing that natural phenomena were relative to the individual observer rather than some absolute and external physical organization "out there." Sir James Jeans expressed it in these words: "It became clear that the phenomena of nature are determined by us and our experience rather than by a mechanical universe independent of the ""

independent of us."

Meanwhile, John Dewey was shaking the educational world. He pointed out that government in America should be relative to the individual observer rather than some absolute and external governmental organization "out there." To be consistent the educational process should also be centered within the individual observer rather than in some absolute external curriculum organization "out there." What is the most effective way for the individual observer to learn? The way scientists learn: In Dewey's words, science was "the most significant thing that ever happened to the human race," and "the future of civilization depends upon the widening spread and deepening hold of the scientific habit of mind." Dewey also reasoned that unless all the observers in the Nation were elevated to scientific literacy the Nation's observations would in time be invalid and freedom would be lost.

Science, democracy, and education merge in their emphasis upon the individual learner, but are individuals prepared by nature to self-learn under mature guidance? Let us look at the preschooler, since he is least corrupted by imposed learning. Like a scientist he is curious, has initiative, and is an experimenter. These attributes are used persistently in seeking a unified outlook upon his world; one that will make it more predictable and controllable. In so doing he uses the many techniques of learning that scientists use. At his level he does experiments, seeks experts, sees films and reads symbols.

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He works both as an individual and in research teams. These teams are self-organized and self-reorganized in terms of the nature of the group and its problems. Parents play the role of a director in a research laboratory—the role of stimulation, guidance, and aid in gaining access to materials.

The result of this persistent, informal approach to life is impressive, even though it may be illogical to adults. It is generally agreed that the child between birth and 5 years learns more and faster than during any other time of life. His learning has been unpredictable as to specifics but highly predictable as to fast and vast learning. This is the accumulative type of learning so typical of a research laboratory. The difference is merely one of sophistication. Why is it that, as the child progresses through school, his learning is taken more and more out of his hands?

Is the child's initiative squeezed out by the system? Our bureaucentered plan of education has become as elaborate as Ptolemy's earth-centered plan of the solar system 600 years ago. Each time a new weakness was found in the Ptolemic system, great energy was expended to correct the weakness by inventing a new epicycle, rather than by permitting the basic theory to be challenged. We have been responding in a similar fashion. When a discovery in our educative maze is isolated great energy is expended to correct the weakness by inventing a new "epicycle" rather than by challenging the basic theory. We now have so many epicycles (textbooks, grade levels, departments, groups, etc.) that it is no wonder many people feel that we are at best making only circular progress.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMMEDIATE IMPROVEMENT

How can we replace our "Ptolemic" approach to education with a more simplified and direct "Copernican" approach? Following are specific recommendations which can be effected in the near future to help establish vigorous, self-disciplined and personalized learning in our schools.

1. Courses and institutes for teachers.—Offer more NSF institutes, college science courses and television courses. In these, fundamental concepts must be discovered while using techniques applicable to the elementary school. Reasoning must replace rote while teachers are being educationed before teachers can in turn have much success with a discovery approach with their own students.

2. Film to create a favorable climate.—Since our society is still prescience in its orientation, the discovery approach will be accepted in the curriculum more quickly if authorities with views based upon experimental data are the main source of public endorsement rather than the data itself. A film, perhaps narrated by a Nobel Prize winner, should be produced, showing how a classroom would function if it were organized so the students worked and learned as scientists themselves worked and learned. It should also endorse the use of the same terminology in both the research lab and the classroom, in order to facilitate a true partnership. The word research, for example, would be a relative word and apply to the learning of both the learner and the learned—both have research horizons.

3. Sell idea of science literacy for all.—Develop a film to show that it is just as possible to make science literacy universal as it was to make literacy itself universal.

4. Long-time blocks.—The discovery approach calls for long blocks of time as well as the extensive use of math, reading, writing, speaking, history, and other disciplines centered in the homeroom. An effective homeroom is no more isolated from varied learning—such as TV, field trips and visitors with various backgrounds—than an effective home.

5. More and better contacts with scientists.—Develop a film to give "authoritative" backing to the idea of providing youth more actual contacts with scientists. It should also show how both field trips and

visits to the school can be made more useful and frequent.

6. Team teaching for "three grade level" span.—Replace single grade level guideposts with "three grade span" guideposts to be striven for by the teachers concerned as a team responsibility. The booklet Matter, Energy and Change published by the Manufacturing

Chemists' Association serves as an example.

7. Tests for "three grade level" span.—Develop tests around all the objectives, and so designed that poor results will stem from a mere descriptive approach. Develop a teacher's guide setting forth how to teach effectively for good results in these tests. The guide should combine objectives, methodology, and evaluation in an accountable manner.

8. Multilevel materials.—Discourage the use of science as a reading program. This means the replacement of basic textbooks with a science shelf of varied books. It is as important for the learner to know how to select a book appropriate to a problem as it is to read

the book selected.

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9. Films for teachers and students.—Produce films on various topics, each for a "three grade" span, that "open end" problems while also introducing, without comment, techniques for exploring these problems (experimentation, use of experts, field trips, team and individual research, etc.).

10. Individual investigations.—List science activities which call for research by individual students and that could be engaged in for

weeks or even years.

11. National elementary curriculum study group.—A foundationfinanced group of scientists and educators should be formed to study elementary school science in the same spirit that high school courses have been studied and revised. This will help implement suggestions of the type listed above. It should also explore problems such as the feasibility of a nongraded school and why there is excessive intellec-

tual "fallout" at fourth grade level.

No nation in history has given an individualed approach a concerted trial. Yet there is good evidence that it would be successful if a favorable climate were established in which it could evolve. In fact, population mobility alone will force us to choose between extensive standardization of curriculum on the one hand or extensive individualization on the other. In the U.S.S.R., for instance, the answer at the present time is standardization. Students can move from school to school at any time and still receive the same curriculum they would have had if they hadn't moved.

Can America drift into a similar educational pattern without drifting into a similar governmental pattern? Or should we condition our children in self-learning so extensively that the learner can move from school to school with much the same education continuity which adults

achieve as they move from library to library? Can we afford to do less than give individualized and personalized education a health trial? If we choose to combat other ideologies by means that conflict with our own, our ideology shall surely be lost.

SELF-PROGRAMING BY THE YEAR 2000

Assuming that a trend toward individualized and personalized learning will emerge more clearly in the near future, what educational patterns might be expected by the year 2000? A reasonable hypothesis may be set forth by projecting such a trend against a background of other trends already underway—trends toward better communication and transportation, the use of more flexible and durable materials, more unification of overlapping functions (multiuse), more nonvocational time, more shared family activities, more frequent early marriages and careers, more suburban development and urban renewal, buildings designed for more harmony with nature, healthier and longer period of retirement, more recreational exercise and contact with nature, a broader base of governmental participation by the citizen, education considered much more as a lifelong pursuit and responsibility, a longer school year, more vocational learning by internship methods, more varied approaches to learning, and more money pooled by industry and government for research purposes.

On the basis of these trends let us take a hypothetical trip into the future and land on the American Continent in the year 2000. As we approach the continent we see attractive, well-spaced homes generally distributed through the countryside with numerous small acreages, each about 20 acres in extent, which appear to be parks.

Later we discover that these parks are really something new. They are multiuse plots of land which combine public library, park, school, community center, and youth center in one coordinated unit. These community centers, as they are called, are constructed to harmonize with both mother nature and the laws of learning. Each center provides a basic common school education for about 200 youth, ages 5 through 15. In response to a suggestion by the anthropologist Margaret Mead several decades ago the 10 years of common school education is called primary, all other learning from birth to death is classified as secondary education whether it is formal schooling or self-education in conjunction with daily living. It is also recognized that the best way to maintain secondary education is to volunteer liberally to assist with the primary education.

Both the facilities and the salaries of the teachers are provided by county funds after they are equalized by the redistribution of State and Federal funds. However, each community center is regulated by its own locally elected planning board. The local board also hires the teachers. The board often selects for internship in the center those local youth who seem to be both interested in teaching and in possession of suitable general education. They are simply retained as teachers when they prove themselves capable.

Let us consider in some detail the physical plant of a typical center, as well as its operation and the results which are expected:

Wooded area.—Wherever possible sites are selected that already have such necessary components as lakes, bogs, trees, and damp shallow caves in a natural state. The site plan originates more from the nature

of the area chosen for the center than from any generalized plan for the center. In some areas the wooded section is created necessarily by artificial means. This is done by first forming hilly terrain, including a cliff and waterfall in conjunction with a damp shallow cave (for alpine plants) and an artificial pond and lake. It is then planted with trees, shrubs, flowers, and other plants suitable for study and observation.

The area then is permitted to grow into a wilderness area except for esthetic and convenient paths and a few well-chosen clearings for picnics and cookouts. The wooded area is available to the young and old of the community. Students study animal life, plants, soil, and water in their ecological interrelationships as well as from the esthetic standpoint. Woods survival and boat and hunting safety are learned

as well as camping techniques.

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Animal raising.—As in the case of the wooded area the animal raising area is especially useful to such groups as Scouts and 4-H as well as to the students. One part is available for youth during the first 5 years of school, and the other for the older students. The animals raised are varied—fish, reptiles, birds, and small mammals of various types. Some field trips are planned which provide experience with larger animals too unwieldy for the community school. Some animals are obtained on loan from museums and zoos. Yet others are trapped in the wooded area for close inspection before liberation. The kinds of animals and their habits and food are studied in such a way that reverence for life in all of its functions is acquired.

Open field.—This area is used for instruction in sports such as practice at casting correctly when fishing, or batting a ball, or running and jumping. It is also used for some competitive games. When more extensive play area is needed, either indoors or outdoors, the group arranges a trip to a regional school, where gymnasium and stadium facilities are available. The regional school may be compared to the junior college of previous years. Usually the facilities in the regional school are quite convenient in terms of distance since most of them are housed in buildings that in previous years were high school and elementary school buildings. In any event, distance is little handicap due to air transportation facilities on the roof of the community school.

Game courts.—The courts are located so that the walls of adjacent rooms which have been designed without windows or doors form an enclosure on three sides. The floor is hard surfaced and in most climates a roof is provided. One end of the court is open. Tennis and volleyball as well as other games such as handball are played here by

students and community alike.

Orchard and crops.—Spaces accessible to the sunshine are set aside for orchard and crops. These areas also tie in well with agencies such as 4—H and Scouts. Experts are brought in for consultation on problems such as proper crops, fertilizers, and sprays as research in chemistry and biology becomes necessary. Crops are often used in the cafeteria to help allay school expenses. Instruction in the preparation of food is then undertaken with renewed interest. In adverse climates transparent cover materials are used to control the temperatures and makes possible year-round growth.

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Flower and vegetable.—Adjacent to each laboratory is an area for growing flowers and vegetables. It is used in much the same way as the orchard and crop area with the additional benefit of flowers to

help beautify the grounds and decorate the rooms.

Cafetorium.—The back part of the kitchen has a door opening on a platform where supplies may be unloaded. The kitchen has sliding counter doors on the other side to make possible the serving of food cafeteria style to the cafetorium section. The cafetorium and the information center [see below] form one long building but are adaptable to the space needed as there are folding doors at intervals between the two areas.

The cafetorium is used for meetings, lectures, films, programs, music lessons, dances, and many other services by young and old dur-

ing both days and evenings.

As aids to the dietition, the students learn cooking, meal planning, etiquette, sanitation, and household responsibilities including child care. To make the cafetorium more homelike and give more experi-

ence in table arrangement, the tables seat four people each.

Information center.—The hub of academics is focused here. When the cafetorium is not in use the information center is extended back as far as the kitchen. The lunch tables are then available as library tables. The center provides a great variety of learning devices. Listening rooms for individuals or small groups are located along the walls, as well as larger conference rooms for committee work and interviews with specialists or for the learning of a new skill by a small group. Closed circuit and regular TV, radio, records, films, filmstrips, slides, pictures, books, magazines, newspapers, transcriptions, and recorders are available for learning, with students encouraged to choose the most appropriate way to learn in each situation. Files of

speakers, consultants, and field trips are also available.

One of the most helpful devices is the self-drill machine. These machines are provided for skill areas such as mathematics and language as well as in content areas such as science, history or geography. For instance, a student wishing to improve his skill in mathematics may enter the self-drill booth for mathematics. A dial with numbers representing levels of difficulty based on national statistics is available. The student estimates his level and turns the dial correspondingly. Sample problems at that level show on the screen. If the student finds the problems too hard or too easy the dial is changed correspondingly. When suitable problems are located another button can be pushed to obtain self-drill materials and a test. When the test is completed the student then slides it into a slot and the errors are marked for immediate feedback and self-correction. Electronic machines of this type not only give the student, parents, and instructors a picture of the student's progress but guide him into areas where increased skill and knowledge are needed. Such machines are used also to administer aptitude tests and give vocational indications to students.

Indoor laboratories.—Four country-school type buildings are located adjacent to the information center and cafetorium section. Two of them are for students 5 through 10 years of age and two for

ages 11 through 15 years.

These four areas are the hub of constructional problems. Equipment and supplies related to carpentry, electricity, plastics, crafts,

art, music, chemistry, physics, geology, etc., are available or obtainable. The educator in charge of each of four labs permits the learners to work and learn as scientists work and learn.

Earth-space garage.—Since earth vehicles have not been entirely replaced by air vehicles garage areas are available where youth can work on their earth-bound cars as well as their space cars and com-

bination vehicles.

Space age facilities.—The entire roof space is devoted to air and space age activities. This area provides in addition to a landing space a weather station, an observatory, a radar station. The area over the information center and cafetorium serves as a landing field

for the transportation of individuals, groups, and cargo.

Educational supplies.—Educational supplies are contributed without charge by private nonprofit institutions called cultural centers. These centers are of several different kinds. Considered historically they grew out of specific cultural interests such as art, music, history, science, and technology. At first the cultural centers functioned for storage and observation in the form of archives and museums. Gradually they incorporated the additional functions of salesmanship. In addition to serving their own select clientele, they added the challenge of trying to gain converts and change society's tastes. The buildings which housed the cultural artifacts became decorated more colorfully and new buildings incorporated more attractive architecture. The exhibits were built to invite participation by the viewer and were changed often in order to encourage return trips.

With the dawn of the space age American education underwent a renaissance. The cultural centers not only went all out to entice young and old alike into trips to the center, it began to take the center to the people. Exhibits for loan to community centers began to be made available. Increasingly they became clearinghouses for field trips and specialists who could aid students in their cultural pursuits.

As the services to community centers grew it became apparent that each cultural center could actually be used to provide a favorable educational and cultural climate for its special cultural interest. Finally, the cultural centers became such important adjuncts to education that the function of supplying the community schools with materials became one of their primary functions. The funds for this great responsibility were assured through generous tax exemptions to donors. Also, many of the materials, such as the plastic tubing previously discarded by hospitals, are now salvaged and offered free to students in improvising experiments and projects. Today cultural centers furnish all supplies except books at no cost, not only to community centers but also to those private and parochial schools certified to provide schooling to the same age group.

Written materials.—As textbooks became obsolete in education the books available in public libraries were used increasingly. Finally, textbooks were discarded altogether and the library and community school fused. The written materials in the information center as well as other community school facilities are available to the community at large whether during school hours or not. Also many written materials are developed locally by students, teachers, and members of the community as a natural byproduct of research education.

School year.—The school facilities are open every day of the year to the public at large. They are open to the students for primary

schooling every day of the week every day of the year except Sundays and holidays. Students are expected to attend a minimum of 200 days per year. These 200 days are selected on the basis of each family's agenda. There is no class chronology to disrupt since each student's learning is individualized and when he returns he merely takes

up learning where it last terminated.

Teachers.—The staff at any given time consists of eight people. They are true professionals who help students teach themselves. Selfprograming skills are the educational theme of the center. One teacher is in charge of each of the four indoor laboratories, one in charge of the cafetorium, one the information center, one in charge of grounds and garage supervision, and one in charge of the air and space age

facilities on the roof.

Since there are approximately 200 students, each indoor laboratory leader coordinates the records of 50 students. Some students are always on leave, some are engaged in recreation, others in outdoor study and field trips and still others are working at the air and space age facilities, the cafetorium, the earth-space garage or the information center. Much aid is offered by the continuous assistance of community aids (averaging at any given time one adult for each five students). Retired people, always present in considerable numbers, are especially helpful.

Vocational.—The community center is designed primarily for general education. However, indirect vocational orientation is provided by the continuous array of specialists brought in from the community to help with specific problems, by field trips to establishments where different vocations can be viewed (even short exploratory apprenticeships are arranged) and by test batteries that can be self-administered

electronically.

Learning continuity.—Since there are no classes, credits, grades, or degrees and each learner teaches himself (self-programing) under the guidance of experts how can there be order plus a balanced learning of skills and knowledge? In the first place the teacher operates with respect to the students as the director of a reasearch laboratory operates with respect to his learners. A clear understanding of re-

sults expected and procedures of conduct are worked out.

Discipline is a minor problem because expectations are clear, selfdiscipline is a major goal, and living in the school area is designed to raise all of the problems of life itself rather than "getting the student ready" for later life before need is recognized. The discipline problems stemming from poor home environment are remedied in part by the very convenience and variety of activities offered by the community school setting which lures almost all families into some of its activities and permits them to learn better living from the others

The setting is esthetic, for while learners are encouraged to use a maximum of scientific procedures, the conditioning environment in which the learning activities take place is given equal importance. The conditioning environment is designed to instill in all participants Albert Schweitzer's immortal concept of reverence for all life. Numerous student exchanges locally, nationally, and internationally also

help implement Schweitzer's ideas.

Each student, like a learner in a research laboratory, keeps a log of daily activities. Occasionally an expert goes over each student's log with him to see if he is aware of the problems being raised by conditions in the school; if self-programing skills are being improved; if the learner is making progress in developing a satisfying model of the universe and how to live productively within it. The "square" of the year 2000 is the learner who has not acquired the self-learning, self-directive skills which might reasonably be expected in terms of ability and maturation. In this stimulating environment, learning is a serious pursuit for youth—an individual and social responsibility for life.

Community learning.—The outstanding example of secondary education is provided by the learning derived from participating in the community school. The information center and other facilities are available for self-learning. Lectures, films, etc., are available in the cafetorium almost every evening. Consultants are continually brought in from all areas of life as well as exchange students from all countries and cultures. Field trips are always available to adults wishing to serve as helpers. The incessant "whys" of challenged youth are also great sources of creative thought.

The community school is the great opportunity for personal screening of political candidates and issues and for investigating the procedures of industries, professions, businesses, and unions. The individual who participates in the community school and its local func-

tions is powerful in influencing the pulse of the Nation.

The basis for the intellectual quest characteristic of the community center is the search for a satisfying insight into the universe and how to live most productively within it. The methods used are scientific, humane, and democratic. The conditioning environment, or expectancy, while the intellectual quest is pursued, is esthetic and close to nature with an emphasis on reverence for life including people of all ages and in all lands. Religious creed is available in churches of the individual's choice rather than in the community center, except for objective discussions of comparative religious concepts.

In summary, the main responsibility of the community school is to provide primary education to about 200 youth ages 5 through 15. An almost equal responsibility is the education and recreation of all other age groups in the district. Education is regarded as a lifeling process and responsibility. All education other than primary education is called secondary education. It may be a continuation of the vertical schooling offered by primary education or lateral education provided by innumerable educational events deliberately sought

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THE IDEOLOGICAL STRUGGLE IN THE YEAR 2000

The world ideological struggle still revolves around the age-old issue of freedom. Should the individual's life be regulated through State initiative or should the State be regulated by individual initiative? It is now recognized that this struggle will not be resolved with war materials. They merely flirt with total disaster, consume basic natural resources, and occupy the valuable time of people whose energies are needed to win the war of ideas and creativity. It is clearly understood that education and the production of ideas, not the production of war materials, is the route to ideological supremacy.

What kind of education is needed to "win" the ideological war? In a sense it is a battle of community centers. The centers of the state supremacy camp are designed to substitute the state for the home as the basic institution and minimize initiative in all except a carefully screened nucleus of those believed to be most gifted. This elite group is taught to approach problems in all areas social and otherwise by the efficient and mobile process called science. The productive activities of the masses are planned to result in the world supremacy of the ideology of statism.

The community centers of the individual supremacy camp are designed to strengthen the home, build initiative and self-discipline in the individual, and keep society flexible and ever-striving for better living for all. The continuous interaction between learners and society produces a spirit of enlightened self-interest in the enterprise world. The presence of many consultants made available to the learners in the community centers by the enterprise world improves the curriculum; these same people get to see first hand how individual students react to various situations. This permits them to offer internship to those best suited to a particular vocation.

Since the most enlightened groups participate most actively with the schools they are most influential with youth. The youth in turn come to identify with this high level of competence and civic responsibility and seek employment with those who participate most effectively. These learners, during the remainder of their lives, also tend to do their business with those groups which cooperate most fully with the schools. In this way it becomes economically unfeasible for a vocational group or portion of a group to be socially irresponsible due to the interplay between youth and society as a whole.

Perhaps the basic difference in the two ideological camps and their schools can be pinpointed by the question, Who directs the research? In the state camp the elite directs the research. To an amazing degree the scientific process is made the learning process of everyone in the individualist camp. This applies to the state camp in degree also since the elite must educate the masses more and more extensively in order to have them accomplish the increasingly complex (but in dispensable) scientific chores so necessary for sustaining and improving the state. In turn, as the masses become more educated they exert more and more political pressure on the elite—even in the choice of elite personnel.

The rapid growth of scientific thinking in both camps has led some scholars to postulate that the camps will become reconciled through the inner dynamics produced by scientific advances. If so, it will no more mean the death of freedom than the seemingly irreconcilable clash of church and state in a previous era meant the death of

The dynamics of a science-oriented world populace is producing an endless array of refreshing new issues for mankind—with a breath-taking array of hypothetical answers to each issue. Will some of these hypothetical answers be raised to the level of dogma to be imposed upon all areas of the world for all time? Scarcely. Ideas in all areas will be played with as freely as they are now in a research laboratory, and experimented with as judiciously. In this way the process of science will progressively release man for the art of full living.

NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION PROGRAMS IN SCIENCE EDUCATION

(Dr. Stanley E. Williamson, chairman, Department of Science Education, Oregon State University, Corvallis)

Dr. Bowen Dees, assistant director for scientific personnel and education, in the foreword to the 1961 edition of "Programs for Education in the Sciences", reveals the need for improved programs in science education. He says: "Science and the applications of science are rapidly reshaping man's world. If the United States is to maintain a position of leadership in world affairs and continue its internal growth and development in a satisfactory and orderly manner, it is evident that increasing attention must be devoted, on both a local and a national basis, to strengthening education in the sciences at all levels and in all fields. Traditional approaches are no longer adequate, especially in view of the increasing demands on the Nation's schools and teachers. Even greater demands to train people to a higher degree of competency, especially in the sciences, are being felt by the educational community. Simultaneously, the number of students is increasing to a degree wholly without precedent. problems resulting from the combination of these factors are numerous and difficult. Responsibility for working toward their solution rests with all of us-in educational institutions, in industry, in government (local, State, and Federal), and in our individual capacities as citizens, parents, and taxpavers."

Science teachers need not be reminded that our knowledge about science is rapidly changing. I wonder, however, if we really appreciate just how rapidly these changes are being made? Dr. Bennington, former Director of the Institutes Section of the National Science Foundation, warned our Academic Year Institute group last fall that 10 years from now, they will need to know twice as much science as they did at that time to keep even in the field of science. In other

words, scientific knowledge doubles about every 10 years.

The atomic age introduced in the early forties was hardly established when the transistor introduced the electronic age which was the forerunner of automation. The space age was born when the first satellite began encircling the earth. We are now on the threshold of controlling thermonuclear reactions which will thrust humanity, possible long before we are ready for it, economically and

socially, into a "new power age."

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le II It is estimated that half of the chemicals in commercial use today were unrecognized in 1950 and 90 percent of the medical prescriptions written in the past decade could not have been written earlier. Today we have over 600 peacetime uses of atomic energy, yet, 15 years ago, a course in atomic physics could not be found in a college or university. Change is so rapid it is believed that 75 percent of the consumer goods

that will be used in 1985 haven't even been invented yet.

This explosion of knowledge in science, and in other areas too, greatly influences science today and will continue to influence it in the future. When we consider that over 50,000 scientific and technical journals report the results of 1,200,000 research studies each year, that every concept and principle in science is being further studied and checked, it is easy to see that we must make every effort to keep up to date to be successful science teachers.

These factors, in part at least, have been responsible for the formation of the National Science Foundation. We might at this point ask,

What is the National Science Foundation?

The National Science Foundation is an independent agency established by the 81st Congress in 1950 by Public Law 507—the National Science Foundation Act. It is concerned primarily with the support of basic research, training, and education in the sciences, and interchange and dissemination of scientific information. More specifically it was organized-1

To develop and encourage the pursuit of a national policy for the promotion

of basic research and education in the sciences.

To initiate and support * * * programs to strengthen scientific research potential in the mathematical, physical, medical, biological, engineering, and other sciences, by making contracts or other arrangements (including grants, loans, and other forms of assistance) to support such scientific activities.

To award * * * scholarships and graduate fellowships in the mathematical,

physical, medical, biological, engineering, and other sciences.

To maintain a register of scientific and technical personnel and in other ways provide a central clearinghouse for information covering all scientific and technical personnel in the United States, including its territories and possessions.

A 24-member National Science Board and Director of the Foundation, all appointed by the President of the United States by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, develop the plans and policies of the Foundation and guide its operation. The Foundation is divided into the following major divisions:

1. Division of Biological and Medical Sciences.

2. Division of Mathematical, Physical, and Engineering Sci-

3. Division of Social Sciences.

4. Division of Scientific Personnel and Education.

Time will not permit a review of all the major divisions, but as teachers we are most interested in the program developed by the Division of Scientific Personnel and Education. Many of you are already aware of certain phases of this program. However, there are areas of the program, not so well known, that may be of even greater interest.

This division is divided into five sections:

(a) Fellowship Section. (b) Institutes Section.

(c) Special Projects in Science Education Section.

(d) Course Content Improvement Section.

(e) Scientific Personnel and Education Studies Section.

and deals primarily with science and mathematics teachers. Each division is open to all teachers in these fields, and they offer a wide range of training opportunities. I would encourage you to select one that most nearly meets your ability and needs and apply for it.

One section of particular interest to science and mathematics teachers is the Fellowship Section. This section is responsible for administration of programs of support to graduate students, teachers, and advanced students in the scientific field according to plans designed to meet the educational needs of individuals.

Two types of fellowships are of interest to secondary school science teachers. These fellowships are offered in mathematics, physical and biological science, and certain interdisciplinary fields. The fellow-

ships are:

^{1 &}quot;Programs for Education in the Sciences," 1961 ed., p. 1.

1. Graduate fellowships for students studying for a master's or more advanced degree in science or mathematics. Stipends: first year, \$1,800; second, \$2,000 and third, \$2,200; \$500 per dependent. Write: Fellowship Office National Academy of Science, 2101 Constitution Avenue, NW., Washington, 25, D.C.

2. Summer fellowships for secondary school teachers for the support of graduate study by secondary school teachers of science and mathematics. Stipend \$75 per week and \$15 per week per dependent. Write: Secondary School Fellowship, AAAS; 1515

Massachusetts Avenue, NW., Washington 5, D.C.

A second section that should be of interest and importance to you is that of institute programs. These programs are designed to make it possible for in-service teachers in elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges to obtain additional instruction and become acquainted with new developments in science and mathematics. The three types of institute programs are:

1. Summer institutes: For high school and college teachers of science, mathematics and engineering; elementary school supervisors and teachers, and summer conference for college teachers. Some are designed for one summer, some sequential. Three hundred and ninety-eight such institutes this summer. Stipends: \$75 per week and \$15 per

dependent (4 maximum). Travel, \$80.

2. Academic year institutes: For high school teachers of science and mathematics. Full-time study at one of 33 selected colleges and universities. Stipend: \$3,000 and \$450 per dependent (4 maximum).

Travel, tuition, fees, and books.

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3. In-service institutes for high school teachers of science and mathematics and for elementary school supervisors and teachers: Classes are held during the evening or on Saturdays. No stipends but books and limited travel allowed. All institute applications may be requested from Institutes Section, Division of Scientific Personnel and Educa-

tion, National Science Foundation, Washington 25, D.C.

Some of you may be interested in one or more of the special projects in science education. "This section is concerned principally with the experimental testing and development of promising new ideas for the improvement of science instruction, and with new and more effective methods of increasing the understanding of science on the part of young people." In other words—How can we improve science education?

Continuing activities under this section include:

Programs for secondary school students:

Visiting scientists.

Traveling science libraries.

Summer training for secondary school students.

Advance science education programs:

Supplementary training for science teachers.

Advance subject-matter institutes.

Visiting scientists, etc.

Undergraduate science education programs: Undergraduate research programs.

Undergraduate independent study.

Public understanding of science:

If you have a special problem you would like to work on in science education, send your ideas to the director of this section. Of special interest and concern to all of us is the Course Content Improvement Programs Section.

Curriculums and courses in mathematics and science in elementary and secondary schools—often in colleges and universities also—have failed to evolve at a pace commensurate with the rapid growth of scientific and technological knowledge characteristic of the 20th century. The lag is due in part to the volume and impact of new knowledge and the accelerating pace of discovery. To some extent it is also attributable to the gulf which has developed between research scientists primarlly concerned with the acquisition of new knowledge and teachers, writers, school administrators, and others primarily concerned with the diffusion of knowledge. Among the results are a relatively low level of scientific literacy among the public at large, too little interest in scientific and mathematical studies among students, and serious inadequacies in school preparation for higher education.

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A vigorous and sustained effort must therefore be maintained in order to develop instructional programs in science and mathematics for our schools and colleges to insure that they reflect contemporary knowledge and modern points of view. For continued progress, a key element is the improvement of curriculums for present and prospective teachers. To complement these efforts increased attention must be given to the development of imaginative teaching aids

You are already familiar with the Physical Science Study Committee, new text and laboratory program in physics; the chemical bond approach and chemistry materials approach in this field, and the newest addition to the family of new courses—the Biological Science Curriculum Study Committee's three new texts and laboratory materials in biology. These new courses have all had 1 or more years on an experimental basis and show considerable promise for the future.

In addition, this section has provided leadership in the development of new instructional supplementary teaching aids.

The National Science Foundation programs are open to all teachers—with or without normal hearing or other physical limitations. I would encourage you to select a program of your choice and participate in the program.

WORKSHOP REPORTS (combined)

It was the concensus of opinion of those present in the science section that specific information to establish the appropriate science and math summer institutes sponsored by the National Science Foundation at Gallaudet College (or any other college or university) for science and math teachers of the deaf, but particularly deaf teachers, be obtained. It is recommended that Gallaudet College seek a Federal grant through the National Science Foundation to set up a series of summer institutes for science and math teachers of the deaf.

The science section strongly recommends a reevaluation of the traditional science curriculum which becomes outdated rapidly. It was suggested that serious consideration be given to developing a more flexible curriculum in science, utilizing the discovery approach.

The group recognizes the need for two types of science curriculum, namely, those for the college preparatory students and others not intending to enter college. It also recognizes that science is for everyone, but science adaptations be made with particular emphasis on the development of skills leading to orderly and logical thinking.

It is recommended that a critical evaluation and appropriate application be made of new annotated filmstrips dealing with modern scientific developments.

The science section recommends that the science film program now in progress by Captioned Films for the Deaf, directed by Mr. John

Gough, be expanded.

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It is recommended that a survey be made of various science textbooks in use in schools for the deaf over the country. (Holt's "Living World" seems to be an excellent textbook for use in biology classes.) It was suggested that the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Washington, D.C., be contacted for listings of publications in the area of science. Also, that a survey on a set of standards for science education in schools for the deaf be set up.

The relationship between vocabulary words and getting the scien-

tific facts across at the same time proved to be a problem.

The use of microprojectors in classes of deaf children is suggested as being superior to individual microscope work at times.

The "what-why" approach was discussed with no conclusive results.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 28, 1961

PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Play Shed—Section leader: Miss Hattie Harrell, principal, Tucker-Maxon School, Portland, Oreg. 9-10:30 a.m.

Panel discussion—"What Is Being Done for the Pre-Schooler and His Parents," or "Fulfilling the Needs of the Pre-Schooler and His Parents."

Panel discussion participants:

Miss Hazel Bothwell, consultant, Deaf and Hard of Hearing Division of Special Education, State Department of Education, Springfield, Ill.

Ray Valencia, visiting teacher, New Mexico State School for the Deaf,

Santa Fe, N. Mex.

Miss Clara Hamel, principal, Rochester School for the Deaf, Rochester, N.Y. Marvin Clatterbuck, superintendent, Oregon State School for the Deaf,

Dr. Freeman McConnell, professor and chairman, Hearing and Speech Division, Department of Special Education, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

10:30-11:45 a.m.

Morning session of workshops.

1:15 p.m.

Business meeting.

2:15 p.m.

Afternoon session of workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

School building-Section meeting to summarize workshops. Leaders:

Miss Annie Hampton.

Recorder: Mrs. Byron Berhow. Sister Marianna.

Recorder: Sister Jeanne d'Arc.

Mrs. Gladys Waldorf.

Recorder: Mrs. Katherine D. Miner.

Mrs. Genevieve Tucker. Recorder: Mrs. Wilma Jahn. Miss Rosemary Burke. Recorder: Miss Alice Clark.

ILLINOIS PRESCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Miss Hazel Bothwell, consultant, Deaf and Hard of Hearing, Division of Special Education, State Department of Education, Springfield)

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This paper is meant to give a description of what Illinois is doing about the education of preschool deaf children; and in so doing, it is necessary to give briefly the school framework which makes this possible and the philosophies underlying this educational plan.

Our basic philosophy is, of course, a firm conviction that the strength of any school program for deaf children—or any children for that matter—is dependent in no small way upon the quality of the preschool program and that unless early education can be provided at the time when all children are learning to talk, the child can never function at his maximum potential—physically, socially, or intellectually.

Oftentimes, we have heard teachers say that a child is too young and immature and not ready for school. This would seem to imply that he is not ready for what we are prepared to teach him—and this may be true. But to imply that he is not ready to learn is entirely erroneous. A child learns from the day he is born, and every day thereafter he is ready for some new experience at his stage of development—and this includes communication.

If you have a chance, read at least the first chapter of the book, Deaf Children in a Hearing World by Miriam F. Fiedler in which she says:

If this one phrase—"All Children Want To Learn"—could be engraved on each classroom wall and really believed in by the teacher, how much rigamarole of artificial stimulation to learning by the use of our teaching tricks could be dispensed with.

Children learn because they want to know—not to please mama or teacher, not for the kindly hug, the clapping hands, or lollypops, but for the fun of finding out about the world itself.

We believe in this philosophy and are doing our best to bring this atmosphere into our educational programs.

When public school programs for deaf or hard of hearing children first began, they were predominately one-room, one teacher programs. Of necessity, all children in the district were enrolled regardless of educational level, hearing loss, or age. We have had permissive legislation for 3-year olds in our State for several years; and frequently, a young child was enrolled in this one-room situation. No matter how superhuman the teacher was, she could not possibly give this young child the program he needed. Certainly, he was not ready for this type of formal schooling.

In the past few years, a new legal framework for special education in public school programs, called joint agreement, has been developed so that school districts can now unite legally into larger geographic areas and share expenditures and resources. Within this framework, it is now possible to establish larger community centers for deaf education; and administrators are being encouraged to combine their facilities so as to plan for a minimum of six classes from preschool through the junior high age level. Throughout the programs, the community centers and the residential school act as an extension of each other—according to the needs of each individual child.

This, of course, does not answer all of our problems; but it has opened the door for sound preschool programs on which to build and improve our total educational program. This year, legislation has been written into our school code providing for a maximum of five children, ages 3, 4, and 5, for one qualified teacher of the deaf, or a maximum of 10 children, ages 3, 4, and 5, for a teacher team of one qualified teacher of the deaf and one qualified nursery school-kindergarten teacher. It is this latter plan which is being encouraged, and this fall four such programs will be started.

This teacher team approach is almost self-explanatory in expressing the philosophy back of this educational plan for young deaf children—this is the belief that not only does he have severe communication needs; but he also has serious environmental needs which can

affect his social, physical and intellectual development.

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Gesell and others have long pointed out how communication and physical and social growth are not separate growth patterns but are interrelated and cannot be separated from each other. As a baby, the child is engulfed by people; he lives in a world of physical contact; he is held and talked to. Faces are against his own or a few inches away. He explores them, he babbles, he laughs—he is a happy, imitiative, communicative child. Soon he is on his own, seeking his independence. He creeps, he walks, he is separated from people. He goes from a world of faces to a world of things—interesting things, to be sure. Exploration continues and things may become more interesting than people. Normally, hearing is the sensory avenue which helps the child find his place in this expanded, fluctuating environment—an environment on which he is expected to build concepts of self and find his new relationships in space.

Recent books on the psychology of deafness by authorities, such as Myklebust and Edna Levine, persons who know deafness, have raised many questions in our minds about the seriousness of sensory deficiencies on the individual as a person, and on his orientation to his environment. For this reason, we feel a sense or urgency about the early education of the deaf child, in a setting that is familiar, non-competitive, friendly, full of interest and security, where the child can identify himself as a person, assume responsibility, and feel con-

fident of his strengths as a growing, independent child.

Parents are an integral part of this total educational plan. In fact, we say that the parents are enrolled with the children. Each of our rooms has a 1-glass observation window; and parents have regular observations, parent conferences with the teacher, as well as group meetings. The teacher, knowing that a good teacher is not necessarily a good counselor, enlists the help of other personnel—psychologists or guidance counselors—to help with this important task, a task in which they, too, often are inadequate. Parents of children younger than age 3 living in the school area are also included in this parent guidance program.

It is helpful that most parents of our preschool children already have had some help either through the Chicago Information Series or the Parent Institute. The Chicago Information Series is held twice a year, and parent meetings are held 1 evening a week for 6 consecutive weeks. The Parent Institute is for parents outside of the Chicago area and is a residential 1-week program for parents and

their young children. Children at the Parent Institute receive a complete evaluation, but this is not necessary in Chicago since more diagnostic facilities are available. In both programs parents are helped to understand some of the problems of deafness and how they can enter into the communication of their young child. Lectures, workshops, and demonstrations with their children in natural situations are designed to give this help. The booklet for parents entitled, "If You Have a Deaf Child," is an outgrowth of this institute.

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There is one other valuable change made this year that should help our preschool programs. Formerly, the diagnostic staff consisted of pediatrician, otologist, audiologist, psychologist, and medical social worker. But this year 10 teachers were employed. They worked directly with the children in their play situations and thus were able through their observations to contribute valuable information to the total picture of the child. For an entire week, parents, teachers, children, and diagnostic staff are together in a dynamic workshop, which should have great effect in raising the professional attitude of the preschool programs and in increasing our understanding of parents and child.

And now for the last few minutes, I would like to share with you the actual school program in these preschools with the teacher team. We realize this team approach is not a new idea, but it is new in the public school programs in Illinois; and we are excited about its future. I think we would all agree that we need to take a long look at what we do to young deaf children.

In these teacher team preschool classes, both teachers work very closely together. There is a busy, happy freedom of activity and physical experiences that pervade every good nursery school program. Communication is encouraged in its fullest sense. It is understood that communication can be a push from another child, unintelligible jabber, and certainly laughter. Every questioning look is put into words with simple, unobscured meaning.

People and faces are brought back into the child's life—a daily mood face painted on the milk pitcher, or a surprise face on a block in the toy box, or the child's own face with that of his playmate in a mirror at a play table. There are interesting puppets, dolls, and animals with mouths that move; and lifesized, self-portraits line the walls—anything and everything to bring people and the child into focus.

Music, rhythm, and dancing are a part of each day's activity, and you would be surprised at how easily and how much fun it can be to put babbling such as "ba-ba-ba" into "rock-'n-roll."

No one doubts the value of stories in any child's life, and yet many a teacher of the deaf feels guilty about "taking time" for this sort of teaching. I did too until a little book came into my hands called, "The Language and Mental Development of Children," written by Dr. Watt, a London psychologist. Through this book he convinced me, and it wasn't difficult because I wanted to believe it, that all children learn much more language than we realize through memorization of the language in childhood stories. And if you don't believe it, just think back to those nights when you tried to rush through a story by skipping a half page.

So here it seems is an ideal structure made to order for preschool deaf children. Encouragement and help is being given to new teach-

ers in helping them structure all formal teaching through this story

hour. Let me point out a few of its merits:

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First, it gives a permanent structure on which to build ideas and language at the child's interest level the same as for all children. It is startling to realize that many deaf children have never really known a story. Most books, through their pictures, have little continuity of thought; but through flannel board action stories, drama unfolds in meaningful sequence before the child's eyes. A story is always logically permanent. When one sets up an experience situation in order to dramatize a language situation, it must of necessity be so structured by the teacher that it loses the creativity she had hoped to achieve. If it is repeated for language drill, creativity is stifled completely. A story is appreciated more as it becomes more familiar, and creativity comes as the child transfers these ideas to his own life situations.

There is repetition without boredom—and that goes for the teacher, too! The more familiar the story becomes, the more the child enjoys it. Each story has many of the same characters as in real life, and they do real and exciting things. There are mothers, fathers, babies, boys, girls—even if they do resemble cats or bears. They eat, sleep, walk, fall, run, jump, go to sleep, wake up, open the door,

wash their hands, and all of the things that children do.

There is wonderful, permanent conversation—very simple at first, perhaps just "hello," or "goodby," progressing to questions forms as "Who will work?" as in "The Red Hen" and "Where are your mittens?" as in "The Three Kittens." Each story has its own built-in language lesson; and all of this is developed, planned, and simplified by the imaginative teacher to suit the purpose and educational level of the children—but the story content is basically unchanged.

There are innumerable opportunities for learning about size, shape, color, numbers, abstract ideas, and concepts of distance, time, and

space—all in meaningful context.

Stories are invaluable in creating attitudes and feelings—happiness, bravery, obedience, pride of accomplishment, fear, sorrow, love, and strong family ties. In dramatization, all of these feelings can

be expressed naturally and meaningfully.

There are unlimited possibilities for auditory training in interesting and meaningful situations from the simplest of gross sounds to identification of speech. There is the tense listening for the wolf to knock at the door, the crash of the tin pail in "Jack and Jill," simple rhythm pattern of fast and slow running in "The Gingerbread Boy," pitch discriminations of voice as in "The Three Bears," and there are growling tigers and singing birds.

Stories also give a basis for real experiences—making cookies with Red Riding Hood, planting a garden with Peter Rabbit, visiting a farm with the Gingerbread Boy, nature walks with the Three Bears, making butter with Black Sambo, and even hatching a chicken with the Little Red Hen. Activities can be extended in many ways, and these activities can provide many interesting discoveries—and what

the child discovers, he remembers best.

With this type of interesting, structured, natural appearing language, the intake of receptive language is unlimited; and expressive language seems to develop almost spontaneously and at the child's own rate of understanding. It gives the child an opportunity to live for a time in a child's world of make-believe and at the same time to

establish a dynamic, living, animated structure for language, lipreading, communication, and auditory training, as well as to expand his knowledge of the world around him. His school develops into a way of life. V

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Parents have found it easy to participate in this type of instruction. They have told stories to their other children and enter into this "homework" with real interest. The story setting helps the parents understand what the child is attempting to say, and many misinterpretations are thus avoided. In this way, the teacher helps to extend the schoolroom into the home and the home into the school.

As you may have guessed, we are enthusiastic about our preschool programs. We know, of course, that we are only scratching the surface at the moment. We know that we need to reach rural areas, that we need improved and more available diagnostic services, more guidance facilities, and most important of all, more good teachers; teachers who know the processes by which children learn. In the last analysis, it is the teacher herself who makes the program. She must know that she cannot force herself upon the child but must be only an extension of each child's thought and bridge the gap of what he is today to what she hopes he will be tomorrow.

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THE PLIGHT OF THE DEAF PRESCHOOLER IN NEW MEXICO

(RAY VALENCIA, visiting teacher, New Mexico School, Santa Fe)

The State of New Mexico has had a school for the deaf for almost three quarters of a century. Thanks to Mr. Lars Larson who established the first school of its kind in Santa Fe, N. Mex., in 1885. Since that time much progress has been made. From a starting enrollment of 5 it has increased to 185. From a one-room schoolhouse it has grown to a modern plant with 21 academic classrooms, 8 vocational shops and classrooms, 2 dormitories, a dining room, an auditorium, an administration building, a clinic, and a brand new gymnasium.

Besides having a fine school, the deaf are much better off now in other ways too. The young deaf who wish to further their education beyond the limitations of the New Mexico School for the Deaf may do so with the help of vocational rehabilitation. This aid is given them either for academic education or vocational training. Employment is no longer as difficult to obtain and wages in general are fair.

With the increase of deaf population, socialization has also become easier. The public too, is less skeptical and more aware of the fact

that the deaf too are able to communicate in most instances.

However, regardless of how much progress has been made there is still much left that should be done. Deaf children that acquire a good language foundation early in life have undoubtedly a much better chance of obtaining a higher education than those less fortunate who for one reason or another do not learn to communicate. In other words, the earlier the start the better their chances are.

The preschool deaf in this State encounter multiple problems.

Some of these problems are:

1. Different languages: Very often Spanish is spoken in the home and English elsewhere; Spanish and English both spoken in the home; Spanish, English, and some other language such as Navajo, Apache, Zuni, or Pueblo is used.

2. Ignorance: In many cases the parents know very little regarding deafness, medical progress, educational and therapeutic

facilities, and the use of amplification.

3. Economic situation: The economic situation is such that in many cases the child is ignored simply because the parents are unable to pay for any services.

4. Illiteracy. Many parents are not able to read or comprehend

enough to make use of a correspondence course.

5. Nomadic situation: A great number of these children come from families whose father is a serviceman and do not remain in one place very long. Other parents move their families around just to see greener pastures.

Some of the agencies which are trying to combat these situations

and help deaf children in other ways are:

1. The New Mexico School for the Deaf which enrolls children as day pupils at the age of 4 and as residential pupils at the age of 5. In some cases, the school makes exceptions and accepts younger children on a part-time training schedule. It holds a school for parents during the summer for 1 week. This period serves as an orientation phase for the children and an instructional phase for the parents of these deaf children. It has facilities for hearing testing, hearing aid evaluation, and differential diagnosis. It also has a program by which a visiting teacher provides free hearing tests and counseling out in field and help

in obtaining aid from other agencies.

2. The New Mexico Hearing Society which is located in Albuquerque, N. Mex. and which is slightly more geographically centered is approximately 300 miles from some of the communities which are in need of the services it offers. This center, the only one of its kind in New Mexico, instructs children from the age of 2 to 6. When the child reaches the age of 6 he or she must go to either a regular school or to the New Mexico School for the Deaf. In order to qualify for the training in language and speech the child must be deaf or hard of hearing. However, exceptional cases have been enrolled there for socialization purposes but for a limited time only. The New Mexico Hearing Society is a member of the American Hearing Society. The tuition is \$25 a month and school is in session from September

until May 5 days a week from 9 to 11:30 a.m. This center is supported by the Community Chest, directed by Mrs. Maryan

Mover who is assisted by Mrs. Inez McDavid.

3. Eastern New Mexico University has been working on a speech and language program for the past 2 years. Dr. Willard S. Jacquot, director of the speech and hearing clinic there reports that they have experienced considerable success in working with one 4½-year-old child as well as with two other children only 2½ years old. These children have received instruction twice a week for half an hour. The fee there is \$4 an hour but no one is turned down because of the inability to pay this fee. Plans have been made for a summer workshop for the mothers of deaf and hard of hearing children.

4. The University of New Mexico has a speech clinic that has done marvelous work with children of all ages. It is directed by Dr. Fred Chrseit. The hours and fees are about the same as

those at Eastern New Mexico University.

5. The New Mexico Rehabilitation Center in Albuquerque, N. Mex., has an outpatient clinic for children and adults which provides psychological, speech, and hearing tests. They also offer some speech therapy. However, the preschool hearing handicapped children in need of therapy or special education are

referred to the New Mexico Hearing Society.

6. The otological division of the crippled children's services, department of public welfare has done an excellent job of testing and counseling throughout the State. This department has provided many children with medical attention, hearing aids, and fees for special training. It also provides instruction to the Public Health and school nurses in the use of audiometers for screening purposes. Another phase of this program is counseling parents.

Other agencies that do testing and referring, as well as counseling, are the following: The State and county health departments, Bureau of Indian Affairs; child welfare; school nurses; eye, ear, nose, and throat specialists; otologists; The Child Development Center; and approximately 25 speech therapists and speech teachers doing private work with children. Unfortunately, most of the speech therapists are located in the larger cities of the State, such as Albuquerque,

Roswell, Hobbs, Carlsbad, Portales, and Santa Fe.

The future of our present deaf preschool children and that of those who will come later, certainly looks much brighter with all the personnel involved, and all the agencies doing their utmost, and cooperating with each other in providing testing, counseling, medical attention, amplification, therapy, financial assistance, and special education. However, a program that can provide more direct counseling and assistance to parents of preschool age children is essential. This program should provide instructors to work with these parents individually or in groups when possible. The instructional sessions should be held frequently with no lapse of more than 2 months. A program of this nature could be sponsored either by the school for the deaf, crippled children's services, or perhaps jointly by both.

Children under a guidance program of this nature would realize some benefit, perhaps to the extent of attending a public school for children with normal hearing, or obtain their education in a school that provides special education, in less time than it would take otherwise. Such a program, I feel, would be beneficial, gratifying, and, economically wise.

SERVICES IN NEW YORK STATE FOR THE PRE-PRESCHOOL CHILD AND HIS PARENTS

(CLARA A. HAMEL, principal, Rochester School for the Deaf, Rochester, N.Y.)

The answer to the question, What is being done in New York State for the pre-preschool child and his parents? has been attempted by means of two questionnaires. Since a deaf child may be enrolled at age 3 in a nursery program in a school for the deaf in New York State, the term "pre-preschool" child in this report means the child under 3 years of age. One questionnaire was sent to the residential schools for the deaf in New York State and another questionnaire was sent to the hearing and speech centers and university and hospital clinics in New York State.

INFORMATION FROM QUESTIONNAIRES TO RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN NEW YORK STATE

There are seven residential schools for the deaf in New York State. They are, in the order of their founding, New York School, White Plains; St. Mary's, Buffalo; Lexington, New York City; St. Joseph's, New York City; Central New York, Rome; Rochester School, Rochester; and Mill Neck Manor, Mill Neck, Long Island. Since the State education department does not pay for the education of a deaf child before age 3, the assumption may be that there are no children under age 3 in residential schools for the deaf in the State. However, there are exceptions as the following answers to the seven questionnaires indicate.

Question No. 1

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Does your school enroll children younger than 3 years of age? Three schools answered "no" and four schools answered "on occasion," but at the present time none of these schools had children under 3. The youngest child that had been enrolled was $2\frac{1}{2}$. In one school these children under 3 attended full-time daily, in two other schools the attendance varied such as two or three times a week all day, or two or three times a week part of the day.

Question No. 2

Does your school have a program for parents of pre-preschool

children?

The answer to this question was "no," since no school has a program specifically and only for parents of children under age 3. However, five of the schools have programs for parents of preschool children which include parents whose children are not yet enrolled in the school. The programs in these five schools included all or some of the following:

1. Counseling parents individually and in groups.

2. Observation of the nursery program.

3. Distribution of literature.

4. Correspondence.

5. Home visitation.

6. Workshops.

In these schools the initial contact with parents during the intake process initiated counseling, distribution of literature, and observation of the nursery program. These parents of prospective preschool pupils were also included in PTA meetings and workshops for the preschool parents. One school has had a workshop for 7 years that has been held for 1 week prior to the opening of school in September for the entering preschool children and their parents, and parents whose children were not yet 3 years of age have attended these workshops. One school had a 1-day workshop this year to reach parents of deaf children below age 3 years so that parents might avail themselves of the services the school has to offer on a possible outpatient basis. A third school is planning a workshop program to include parents of pre-preschool children. The program in these schools was directed by the principal or preschool supervisor with other staff members—administrator, audiologist, psychologist, social worker.

Question No. 3

Do you feel there is a need for schools for the deaf to put greater emphasis on the training of the pre-preschool child and his parent?

One school answered "no" and six answered "yes." Of the six, four have programs that include parents of pre-preschool children and two are planning orientation programs for preschool parents, presumably to include parents whose children are under 3. No school mentioned a program exclusively for parents of deaf children under

3 years of age.

Since six schools expressed affirmatively the need for schools for the deaf to put greater emphasis on the training of the parent and his prenursery child, there is evidence of concern to support and guide parents in the period when they first become aware of their child's problem. One school, however, felt this initial help must generally come from the speech and hearing clinics. While the other schools recognize the important role of the speech and hearing clinics in parental guidance, the schools feel they, also, can and should be more active and involved in helping parents.

One school suggested that there would be great value in a workshop for parents of deaf children conducted by members of the professional staff including social workers, psychologist, and medical personnel of

approximately 2 weeks' duration held during the summer.

INFORMATION FROM QUESTIONNAIRES TO HEARING AND SPEECH CENTERS AND UNIVERSITY AND HOSPITAL CLINICS IN NEW YORK STATE

Eighteen questionnaires were sent and replies were received from 16. One had no report available because of illness of the director and one dealt primarily with the hard of hearing. Therefore, the sta-

tistics will be based on the answers of 14 questionnaires.

The eight centers in the area of New York City include the following: Bellevue Hospital, hearing and speech center; Manhattan Eye, Ear, and Throat Hospital, hearing and speech center; New York University Bellevue Medical Center, Institute of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, Speech and Hearing Therapy Department;

Hunter College speech and hearing center; the New York Hospital-Cornell Medical Center, speech and hearing center; Long Island Hearing and Speech Society, Inc.; New York League for the Hard of Hearing; the Association for the Preschool Deaf, Inc., Flushing.

The six centers in upstate New York include: Hearing and speech center, Children's Hospital Home, Utica; Gordon Hoople Hearing and Speech Center, Syracuse University; hearing and speech center, Rochester; speech and hearing clinic, State University college of education, Geneseo; Buffalo Hearing & Speech Center, Inc.; and speech and hearing clinic, Children's Hospital, Buffalo.

Ten of the centers are located in areas with a population of more

than 500,000 and four in areas of less than 500,000.

Questionnaire

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1. Approximately how many children under 3 years of age with a loss of 60 decibels or more in the better ear did you serve in 1959-60?

In the New York City area of 8 centers, 168; in the upstate area

of 6 centers, 143.

2. Did these children receive diagnostic evaluation at your center?
Answer. Yes, 13; no, 1.

The Association for the Pre-School Deaf, Inc., Flushing, received evaluation from Bellevue and Columbia Presbyterian Hospitals.

3. What testing techniques were used?

Answer. (1) Gross audiometry, 12; (2) pure tone audiometry, 13; (3) general speech reception, 9; (4) other conditioning techniques, 8.

Only one answer explained the technique "other" as "modified

speech reception."

4. Do you do formal tutoring with children under 3 years of age?

Answer. Yes, 11; no, 3.

Since we are considering only children under 3 years of age, the term "formal" may be inappropriate, but it was intended to imply a somewhat structured program informally presented. The above answers were the result of this interpretation.

5. How often did children have tutoring?

Answer. Once a week, 2; twice a week, 3; three times a week, 2; daily, 2; not indicated, 2.

6. How long were the periods?

Answer. 1 hour, 4; 1 hour to one-half hour, 3; one-half hour, 2; less than one-half hour, 1; 2 hours in a nursery setup, 1.

7. Did the children attend a class group?

Answer. Yes, 5; no, 9.

8. How often did children attend a class group?

Answer. Once a week, 1; three times a week, 2; five times a week, 1; one to five times a week, 1.

One center has a nursery class of 10 children that meets 5 times a week for a 2-hour program.

9. Do you routinely prescribe hearing aids?

Answer. Yes, 12; no, 2.

10. Is there a planned program for the parents of the deaf child under 3 years of age?

Answer. Yes, 10; no, 4.

Three of the centers that answered "no" added that individual counseling of parents was part of their service and two of these three indicated recommendation of the John Tracy Correspondence Course.

The centers that had programs for the parents checked the use of the following methods: (1) Counseling parents individually, 10; (2) counseling parents in groups, 9; (3) distribution of literature, 7; (4) home visitation, 1; (5) observation of nursery program, 9; (6) workshops, 5; (7) correspondence, 4.

11. What services are available at your center?

Answer. (1) Otological, 10; (2) psychological, 12; (3) social service, 8.

Six centers indicated they had all three services, and two stated they received the service through a referral agency.

12. From what sources do you get referrals to your center?

Answer. (1) Otologists, 13; (2) pediatricians, 12; (3) other physicians, 11; (4) nurses, 8; (5) hospitals, 12; (6) schools, 11; (7) welfare agencies, 12; (8) health department, 1; (9) nursery schools, 1; (10) sources not identified, 3.

Obviously some of the referral sources mentioned above such as

"schools" would not likely refer children under age 3.

Comments added to three of the questionnaires expressed the following opinions. The director of the Association for the Pre-School Deaf, Inc., commented: "We feel that the facilities for taking care of children under 3 is quite inadequate, not from the standpoint that the facilities do not exist, but that hearing losses are not detected early enough by the pediatricians and, therefore, referrals come to us quite late."

The executive director of the Speech and Hearing Clinic, Children's Hospital, Buffalo, stated: "My feeling is that *no* child should be enrolled in a school for the deaf before age 5–6 years where there are

preschool facilities available outside such a school."

Opposed to this view is the following statement made by the director of the Speech and Hearing Center, the New York Hospital—Cornell Medical Center: "We have good working relationships with all the schools for the deaf in the area and children are placed as early as acceptable."

Summary

One characteristic of answers to a questionnaire is that the answers suggest further questions. There are few irrevocable answers. However, all the answers with their interrelationship can indicate the trend or direction of the survey. Therefore, the following conclusions might be made:

1. New York State has facilities available for the evaluation and diagnosis of the deaf child under 3 years of age.

2. Most of the centers have programs for parents of the deaf child

under 3, primarily counseling individually and in groups.

3. Schools for the deaf either have programs for preschool parents that *include* parents of pre-preschoolchildren or are in the process of planning programs that will.

4. Most of the centers have therapy programs for the deaf child

under 3.

5. The schools for the deaf do not have programs for the deaf child

6. Decision of placement of the deaf child at preschool age is influenced by the philosophy of the center, clinic, or school the parent contacts.

7. Clinics, speech centers, and schools need to know more about each

other's services and programs.

In conclusion, the writer wishes to express appreciation to all those who took the time to answer the questionnaires that made this report possible.

OREGON'S PROGRAM FOR THE DEAF CHILD BEFORE HE ENTERS SCHOOL

(Marvin Clatterbuck, superintendent, Oregon State School for Deaf, Salem)

A few years ago in Oregon each agency working with deaf children and their parents went its own way and had little to do with the other agencies except to stab them in the back when possible. There seemed to be more effort going into the stabbing of other agencies than in helping children. This resulted in parents being completely confused by

the conflicting advice.

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After each agency finally decided that it could not put the others out of business, the hatchet was buried and the directors of a few agencies fearfully sat down together to discuss what each was doing and what might be done by all to better serve the deaf children of Oregon. It was not long before they began to realize that the day school, the State school, the private schools, and the hearing and speech centers were all staffed by sincere people who had similar problems.

It might be of interest to note that some 10 years ago the staff of the Oregon school invited all the teachers in the neighboring Washington State school, the day school, and the private school to a social evening at the Oregon school. This helped break down may barriers and this social is still held each year, rotating among the various schools.

As a result of this small beginning, the group of agencies interested in the deaf extended invitations to other agencies who came in contact with the deaf. This group has now grown to include the Oregon State School for the Deaf, the Eugene Hearing and Speech Center, the Medford Junior Service League Kindergarten, the Hosford Day School for the Deaf, the Tucker-Maxon Oral School, the Outpatient Clinic of the University of Oregon Medical School, the Crippled Children's Division of the University of Oregon Medical School, the Portland Center for Hearing and Speech, the Oregon State Department of Education, the division of vocational rehabilitation, the State and local health departments; the State board of health, and the Oregon Fairview Home (Oregon's home for the mentally retarded).

This organization is known as the Oregon Council for the Deaf. It is a rather unusual organization in several ways, having no officers, no rules, no constitution, no dues, and no regular meeting date. You probably wonder how it can operate. It is rather simple in that at each meeting it is decided where and when to meet next. The host is the chairman and provides the secretary and sends out an agenda of things to be discussed. It is amazing how well it works and how

well it promotes harmony. This organization tried to accomplish

several things and I will discuss some of these.

1. The members try to decide who is best able to perform certain functions. To their great surprise it seems all have more than they can do. It is recognized that the Portland Center of Speech and Hearing is much better qualified to do a complete hearing evaluation than any other agency.

2. Agencies exchange and have a central list of all deaf children.

The State department of education performs this service.

3. Before pupils are transferred between schools, the members try to discuss the case and decide where the child should be and then to persuade the parents to follow their recommendations.

4. The council has had exhibits at the Oregon State Medical Society meetings for Better Hearing Week and at other public meetings.

5. The council conducts a preschool conference each year when all parents of deaf children not in school are invited to spend 3 days visiting all the schools and the Portland Center for Hearing and Speech. There are some sample programs available here. Panel discussions and guest speakers make up part of the program.

6. The council publishes a bulletin describing services of each

agency. (Samples are available.)

The Oregon State school has a fieldworker who calls on parents throughout the State and the State school hopes to add a social worker who will spend a great deal of time in educating parents. The Language Disorder Clinic of the Crippled Children's Division of the University of Oregon, a cooperating agency, gives medical help and advice to parents. The Portland Center of Speech and Hearing conducts classes for parents and preschool children in the Portland area. The Eugene center does this in that area. The Junior League of Medford conducts a kindergarten for children in their area. The Oregon State school conducts such classes for Salem area children. The State department of health carries on a statewide testing program and reports children who need the services of the organization. The Hosford Day School, the Tucker-Maxon Oral School, and the Oregon State school all conduct preschool departments and accept 4-year-old children into their regular programs. After a child of 4 enters the State school for the deaf the parents are encouraged to visit two or three times a year and spend at least a full 24 hours on each visit.

I am fully convinced that the greatest accomplishment in Oregon has been through this cooperation. Parents now are discouraged from running from one agency to another with the hope that a miracle can be performed for their child because they are not given conflicting stories and all encourage parents to place their child in the school that best fits his need and the parents' situation. We find, too, that when it is necessary for a child to transfer from one school to another, the parent is acquainted with all schools and has a better feeling in trans-

ferring the child.

The cooperating agencies are now able to support one another and all are able to give better service to preschool children and their parents.

TENNESSEE'S PROGRAM FOR PRESCHOOL DEAF CHILDREN

(Dr. Freeman McConnell, professor and chairman, Hearing and Speech Division, Department of Special Education, University of Tennessee, Knoxville)

INTRODUCTION

In Tennessee the program for the preschool deaf child has emerged in the past 10 years as an integral part of the total statewide and stateplanned program for all citizens with communicative handicaps. Thus, in order to visualize the opportunities that are now available to the young deaf child, it is necessary to consider first the various State and local agencies and organizations that have played a major role in

the development of the speech and hearing program.

Prior to 1950 Tennessee had virtually no adequate facilities outside the educational program at the Tennessee School for the Deaf, which provided a residential educational program for children upon reaching the legal school age of 51/2, although in practice, many children did not enter until 7 to 10 years of age because they were not discovered or referred earlier. Since that time the rapid development of State and local services in speech and hearing has been the work of many citizens, but certainly those of us who have had an opportunity to participate in this movement would all recognize that it was the untiring and dedicated pioneering of the late Dr. Wesley Wilkerson, a Nashville otolaryngologist, who commandeered the forces to make our present program possible. In the beginning he took the initiative in stimulating the endorsement of the State medical association, and through coordinating their efforts with those of leaders from the Department of Public Health, a statewide organization known as the Tennessee Hearing and Speech Foundation was established.

THE TENNESSEE HEARING AND SPEECH FOUNDATION

This foundation, a private, voluntary corporation, has provided the framework for statewide planning and coordination of speech and hearing facilities. With the endorsement of the State medical association and the public health department, it has these objectives:

To promote, encourage, and provide clinical services for all speech and hearing handicapped citizens in the State;
To insure that all cases referred to clinical centers over the State

have the proper medical examination and treatment; and

To maintain the highest professional standards possible with respect to personnel and therapy service in the clinical centers and

in the health and education department programs.

Through the sponsorship of the foundation, seven regional hearing and speech centers have been established. The first of these began services in 1951 in Nashville, the Bill Wilkerson Hearing and Speech Center. This center has acted as a leader in the State and in a general advisory capacity to the others in their formation. By 1953 six of the seven centers were established and offering clinical services in their respective regions of the State. It may be noted that these six centers located in Memphis, Jackson, Nashville, Chattanooga, Knoxville, and

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nd eir Johnson City are so situated that diagnostic and therapy services are available to any resident within a radius of 75 to 100 miles. In 1957, the seventh center was established in Bristol, which is also in the upper northeast corner of the State, not far from Johnson City. In 1958 the Tennessee School for the Deaf in Knoxville officially affiliated with the State foundation, so that at the present time the seven clinical centers and the State residential school for the deaf make up the foun-

dation organization.

The directors of the centers and the superintendent of the school for the deaf meet semiannually to discuss common problems and to define needs in the speech and hearing field, which are presented to the foundation board. The board is composed of five representatives from each of the seven hearing and speech center boards. While each of the clinical centers is actually an autonomous unit, employing its own personnel, raising its own funds, and organizing its own professional services, each is, in part, supported by the Division of Crippled Children's Service, and in that sense, operates financially as part of the

State program.

The participation of the State health department has played an important role in the rapid expansion of the Tennessee program. Largely through the efforts of the State commissioner of health, Dr. R. H. Hutcheson, and the late Dr. Wilkerson, the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee in its 1951 session made two important contributions to speech and hearing. It redefined the legal definition of a crippled or handicapped child which made it permissible for Crippled Children's Service of the Tennessee Department of Health to consider children with any defect of hearing or speech as handicapped, and thus eligible for medical and rehabilitative or habilitative programs. It also appropriated an annual sum of \$120,000 for special services in speech and hearing, and this budget, now more than doubled, has been increased with each session of the legislature as the program has grown. In conformity with this appropriation, Crippled Children's Service put into operation as of July 1, 1951, a statewide program designed to find, test, screen, and refer for treatment children with speech and hearing disorders, and to provide aid, treatment, and auxiliary services for the indigent children so handicapped. For the indigent child up to age 21, the State provides general medical services, detailed otolaryngologic examination and treatment as indicated, and specialized services such as detailed audiologic and speech evaluation at the clinical centers, prosthetic appliances, and therapy programs, including preschool education for the nonlanguage child.

The recognition of the vital importance of State-planned and State-coordinated services to include therapy and education programs through the clinical centers and the school for the deaf is witnessed by the further support from the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee, which in 1955 unanimously voted a \$1 million bond issue for the construction and equipment of a new hearing and speech center building in Nashville. Federal funds through the Hill-Burton Act provided ultimately about one-fourth of this cost, with the remainder borne by the State. The 1957 legislature 2 years later appropriated further funds through a bond issue for new buildings for hearing and speech clinics of the foundation at Jackson, Knoxville, and Johnson City. In 1959 a bond issue was voted for Memphis, making in all five clinic buildings built by the State, whose sole function is the provision

of hearing and speech services. The Bill Wilkerson Center in Nashville also carries on a research program and a student teaching program. The University of Tennessee, affiliated with the Knoxville Center, as well as the school for the deaf, trains students, as does East Tennessee State College, affiliated with the Johnson City Center.

PROGRAMS FOR THE PRESCHOOL DEAF CHILD

Each of the seven clinics of the foundation provides some service for the preschool deaf child. These differ, of course, in scope and organization, but the important point is that some help is available throughout the State to the parents of such children. The smaller centers at Bristol, Johnson City, and Jackson provide diagnostic services, but do not have organized preschool education classes, although individual training sessions are scheduled for the preschool deaf and guidance is given the parents. At the Bill Wilkerson Center, a fairly complete and comprehensive program is available; children are entered for training by 18 months to 2 years of age following thorough evaluation, both medical and audiologic. When a child has completed the diagnostic workup, plans are implemented for his preschool education program. For those within commuting distance, a

daily program from 9 to 12 is available.

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The children are enrolled in 2 age groups, one from 18 months to 3 and the other from 4 to 6, with approximately 10 children in each In charge is a trained teacher of the deaf with preschool experience and background, who is assisted by another teacher who acts in the capacity of a nursery or kindergarten teacher. Speech and language development and auditory training sessions are accomplished in small training rooms adjacent to the nursery, when and as the opportunity presents itself each day. The next two slides depict the children in the two age groups in the nursery rooms at the Bill Wilkerson Center. All children are maintained under the audiologic supervision of the clinical audiology staff, and wearable hearing aids are instituted soon after enrollment in almost all cases. They progress from the younger group to the older class as their maturity and achievement dictate. Upon reaching the age of 6, a decision is made whether or not the child should enter the State residential school or continue in the local day class program. At the present time day classes are available only in Nashville and in Memphis, although planning has been started for Chattanooga and Knoxville.

The nursery and kindergarten program in Nashville has also been used for a 5-year study of oral language achievement in nonlanguage children with both peripheral and nonperipheral auditory impairment. This study, sponsored by the National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Blindness, is now near the end of its fourth year. Since I served as the principal investigator for this study for the first 3 years, I have accumulated a large amount of data which would, I am sure, be of interest to this group. Since time will not permit reporting that here, I perhaps can discuss some of the implications in the afternoon discussion group. All children in the groups at this center are seen periodically by a pediatrician, otolaryngologist, neurologist, psychologist, and audiologist. The parents are counseled by a medical social worker, and a planned parent training program

complements the educational program for the children.

ANNUAL PARENTS INSTITUTE

Under the auspices of the health department, Miss Sylvia Stecher, director of speech and hearing services, has for the past 2 years organized and carried out a parents institute at the State school for the deaf in Knoxville for 1 week in June. This program, now to continue on an annual basis, is a cooperative endeavor of the health department, the seven hearing and speech centers of the foundation, and of the State school for the deaf. Clinical personnel in the centers recommend individual children to the health department during the year from their diagnostic caseload. Speech and hearing consultants from the health department visit the homes of the children and begin the preliminary workup for admission to the institute. The institute is intended particularly for the child who is expected to enroll at the State residential school and whose parents can best benefit from the thorough orientation provided. In effect, this means that some preference for enrollment is given to the parents from the more isolated rural areas who are less able to avail themselves of the more frequent contacts with the clinical centers.

At least one parent, usually the mother, is required to attend the institute with the child. The program includes a thorough pediatric and otolaryngologic workup followed by audiologic, psychologic, and language evaluation. From the first day the children are oriented to beginning sessions in sense training, rhythm, speech and language development, and social participation experiences designed to stimulate communicative skills. Trial sessions with both group and individual hearing aids are begun, and through crippled children's service, a wearable aid is selected for each indigent child. At the same time the parents are taught methods of home training and are seen for counseling sessions and lectures. The lecture series includes an otolaryngologist, an audiologist, a nutritionist, a psychologist, and a teacher of the deaf. A special feature of the institute has been the participation of a group of older deaf children in their teens who have done a square dance demonstration. This aspect of the program has helped the parents to project a little more easily into the future with their young deaf child and to realize that social and personal adjustment for the deaf child is possible in spite of his deafness.

While the parents institute idea is not in itself new, since several States have carried on similar programs for a number of years, it has quickly demonstrated its effectiveness in Tennessee and has been easily integrated into the statewide program of existing services. Thus, it is seen as a forward step in providing better opportunities to the children suffering a severe communicative handicap. Following the institute, which is staffed by speech and hearing consultants from the crippled children's service, school for the deaf personnel, and preschool teachers and audiologists from the clinical centers, increased good will and understanding have resulted concerning the common goals of all persons in the field of speech and hearing over the State. The health department consultants undergo a participating inservice training in methods of working with the young deaf child under the skilled supervision of teachers of the deaf, and thus become more familiar with the educational handicap of deafness and the need for counseling of the parents. For those younger children who do not enter the school for the deaf the succeeding year, the health department consultants visit and carry out a home program with the parents during the year if they live at a distance too great to preclude training in one of the clinical centers. Thus, a parent of such a child is made aware of the resources for help in Tennessee and may look forward to the future more confidently without the fear that his child will not be able to be educated and become a self-sufficient adult in spite of his severe handicap so early in life.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I-Discussion of Child Enrolling at Age 5 Years

(Leader: Sister Marianna, St. Joseph's School, University City, Mo.) (Recorder: Sister Jeanne d'Arc, St. Joseph's School, University City, Mo.)

Sister Marianna opened the discussion by presenting materials which she used in the teaching of speech and lipreading. In conjunction with this, she explained her method of teaching speech and lipreading. At St. Joseph's the analytical method of teaching speech is used. Sister shows the child the written sound, as well as mirrored picture of the sound, to introduce and drill speech sounds. The written is always script because the child is better able to see the continuity in drill words if they are written in script. Single sounds are always taught first and these are combined to make words. Sister uses pictures for the drill of single sounds; she had samples of the pictures she used. The pictures prove a very helpful visual aid. For dipthongs, two pictures were used to represent the sound. When the children see the sound written on a card, they point to the picture which represents the sound.

Sister showed a speech book which she had devised for speech work. She explained that St. Joseph's had purchased a binder this last year and had found it most helpful in constructing speech and language books. The speech book is built as the child acquires sounds. A page in the speech book is composed of three cards. Each card has a speech sound written on it. The first and third cards have consonants written on them, the first being an initial sound and the third being a final sound. The middle card is a vowel sound. Because of the way the book is constructed, any possible combination of sounds can be devised by turning sections of pages. This speech book is used

for drill in school and is sent home for summer work.

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Another way of drilling speech is to play games. Sister had cards on which were written individual speech sounds, with many duplications of each sound. The sounds were written in various colors to provide interest. The cards were placed in a Plymouth chart, at random. The teacher pronounced a sound and the child was to select the card, any card, which pictured this sound, and move it to a designated place in the chart. Initially this was merely identification of single sounds, but as the child becomes more proficient, combinations of sounds are pronounced and the children select the corresponding cards. As soon as the children mastered the primary spellings of individual sounds, they were presented the secondary spellings, which were written in pencil under the primary spellings. Sister found that the hardest combination for the children was one in which the consonant was given first.

Still another way of drilling was a book of nouns. The construction of this book was similar to that of the speech book; however, each page had two sections instead of three. In connection with this, Sister explained that she wrote the word corresponding to the picture on the back of the picture rather than under it. She felt that this helped to train the memory. She also mentioned that she wrote the word in two colors to show the change of sound within the word. By the end of the first year, the children had mastered 75 to 80 words. However, Sister felt that phonetics were more important than words and that the acquisition of sounds was basic and fundamental to the proper formation of words. If the children are forced to learn words before they master sounds, this adds to their problems.

In the teaching of speech sounds, Sister mentioned that if the child can say and write the sound, she permits the child to write the sound on the board. This provides motivation. Another device for motivation is the teaching of two pupils rather than one. This provides

competition which is healthy and fruitful.

In the nursery school, beginning pupils are given sense training, music through listening on a hearing aid, lipreading of stories whose plots unfold in definite sequence, and free play which is accompanied

by receptive language.

Lipreading is given in many ways, that is, without the hearing aid, and with the hearing aid, which channels a tape recording of speech sounds which have been taped by the speech teacher. In lipreading a sentence book is used which has pictures of interesting activities about which sentences are composed to provide lipreading material. The child is taught to lipread the sentence and is also questioned generally about items or persons in the picture. In this way a conversational period accompanies the lipreading period.

At this point Sister Marianna talked about lipreading material in letters. She said that many parents of children in her class have purchased photo stamps of themselves and other members of their family; these photo stamps provide identification for signatures on

letters.

Lipreading is also used for news in which two or three sentences

are devised about an experience that the class has had.

Here one of the members of the panel introduced a device which had been found very helpful in her school. It was an experience story book which consisted of pictures, actual photos, taken of the experience in which the children had participated, mounting them in a book (by using mounting tissue), and writing relevant sentences under the pictures. The pictures were taken by a teacher; they were necessarily quite large, 3 by 5, and there was only one picture per page. The sentences beneath the pictures were written in script and were written in order to control language for the teacher who might be a novice in the field.

The children found the books interesting even if they were not the children involved, if the experience were one which they had experienced, and also, if the children in the pictures were children they

knew.

Stress was put upon the fact that the pictures should be pictures of some activity and not still life. In this way they would stimulate language and the building of concepts. The sentences for the most part were in the past tense, and those that were not were to be revised

and put into the past tense. This was due to the fact that the children looked at these pictures as pictures of past experiences. Some of the titles of the books were: Grocery Store, Karen Built a Boat, Lollipop Farm, and Fun With Blocks. Fun With Blocks provided language that stimulated creative imagination.

WORKSHOP II-PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

(Leader: Mrs. Gladys Waldorf, Tucker-Maxon School, Portland, Oreg.)
(Recorder: Miss Alice Clark, Pennsylvania School, Mt. Airy)

Due to the panel discussion and the convention business meeting, our workshop was limited to an hour's discussion.

Members of the group discussed the programs for the 4-year-old in a residential school, a day school and a private day school. For-

tunately, members from each program comprised the group.

It was the consensus that socialization is the most important goal at this level. The members were of the opinion that 4-year-olds would be able to make the greatest progress in all areas if placed in a small group and allowed to remain with one trained teacher for the entire school day, returning to their own families at the close of each daily session.

Workshop III—Meeting the Needs of the Preschool Child and His Parents

(Leader: Mrs. Genevieve Tucker, Idaho School, Gooding) (Recorder: Mrs. Byron Berhow, Washington School, Vancouver)

1. Parent-school relationship.

A. Submit adequate questionnaire to parents requesting personal history data on the child.

(1) Physical history and cause of deafness.

(2) Social adjustment.

(a) How he communicates with his parents (gestures, voice, signs, fingers, spelling, etc.)

(b) How he communicates with his

peers and with adults.

(c) How he responds to speech of others.

(d) What his own speech patterns are.

(3) Emotional adjustment.

(a) Fears, phobias, and/or tantrums.

(4) Dormitory information.

(a) Toilet training.

(b) Eating, sleeping, and play habits.

B. Parent-teacher interview.

Specific hour agreed upon for registration.

 (a) To establish rapport with teacher.

(b) To ease transition from clinic to school.

(c) To help allay parents' fears and doubts.

(d) To learn parents' attitude toward oralism, signs, finger spelling, etc.

C. Parent education.

(1) Give parent opportunity to supplement school training at home.

(2) Train parent to write the kind of letter most meaningful to the child.

(3) Acquaint parent with the technical terms used by educators of the deaf.

(4) Help parent get a realistic viewpoint by not demonstrating only with the advanced child.

(5) Explain that the growth of the oral process is slow.

(6) Explain the limitations of a school if it is small.

2. Formal education.

A. Sense training at 5½ years.

(1) Build on previous experience—take the sense training out of the mechanical field and incorporate this technique with active mental development.

(2) Familiarize child with new situations, through purposeful play.

There was discussion, pro and con, about the child's need for individual attention from a teacher for at least a short period every day; and about the desirability of removing him from group activity, for individual therapy at any time convenient to the teacher.

Workshop IV-Those Who Enter at 3 Years or Younger

(Leader: Miss Rosemary Burke, Western Pennsylvania School, Pittsburgh.) (Recorder: Mrs. Bernice Fort, Wyoming School, Casper)

The child in general was considered, his adjustments, emotional reactions and ways of teaching speech reading, speech, and language. The group felt that the means of teaching should be oral but some said that those children from deaf families who came to the school with signs seemed to be better adjusted and to learn speech more quickly than the others. They do not sign at school, but they have a means of communication which makes them more secure. handicap has been accepted and they have a vocabulary when they enter school. This is true of even the 3-year-olds who enter a residential school.

All participants from residential schools agreed that they knew of no child who had developed emotional disturbances by coming to their schools. They felt if the parents were well adjusted and accepted the child, he is adjusted.

It was agreed that nursery school and kindergarten teachers should be trained in their fields and they have supplementary training in education for the deaf. This brings a more formal approach to the

overall development of the child.

In answer to the question of what to do with the child with a multiple handicap, the group felt that schools should avail themselves of facilities of university speech and hearing centers for screening purposes for the preschool children. The teacher should know her limitations and not try to do that which she cannot. On the other hand, she should be flexible in her methods and be willing to change and try other methods when the child does not respond immediately. Another type of teaching, still oral, may reach him.

Parent education and parent reporting were discussed. Types of parent reporting are: letters from the teacher each week, conferences, visits at the school, telephone calls for local parents, the monthly school paper, and tours of guests with parents accompanying them sometimes. In the weekly letter, the teacher should give something to work on, something definite that is being done at school, and which the parent can carry on at home. Samples of the child's work may be sent home and called "letters" from him. It was suggested that the parent get a scrapbook and mount these "letters" for future reference and as a record of growth.

Visits at the school may be for several days and the parent may stay in the dormitory with the child in a residential school. This helps to build understanding between teacher, child, parent, and house

parent.

Visits at a day school were on a weekly conference basis.

All felt tours should be encouraged to promote good public education, but that they would be controlled so the child's education is not disrupted too severely. A certain amount of visiting is educational, but too much can be distracting.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 28, 1961

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

9-9:45 a.m.

Lindstrom Hall west—section leader: Allen J. Hayek, principal, Idaho School, Gooding.

Keynote speaker: Mr. Donald A. Padden, assistant professor, physical education, Gallaudet College, "Intramural Progress for Residential Schools." Interpreters: Barry Griffing, Polly Shahan.

10-11:30 a.m.

Morning session of workshops:

Lindstrom Hall west—Track workshop: David Fraley, coach, Berkeley, Calif., school presenting the subject: "Factors That Motivate Top Track Performance for Deaf Athletes."

Interpreter: Louis Boley.

Lindstrom Hall east—basketball workshop: Henry O. Bjorlie, athletic director, South Dakota School:

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A. Opening of workshop. General remarks as to what is to be gained from such a meeting.

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B. Introduction of Dr. Peter Wisher, Department of Health and Physical Education, Gallaudet College.

Paper: "Necessary Basketball Fundamentals." C. Films of Gallaudet-Catholic University game. D. Open discussion period (Mr. Bjorlie, moderator).

Interpreter : Robert Lennan.

Lindstrom Hall basement-girls' physical education and coaches' workshop:

Nita Hiett, girls' coach, Arizona School for the Deaf.

A. Film: "Basic Movement Education in England," by Betty Ludwig. B. Demonstration: Teaching progression in the phases of gymnastics, tumbling, free exercise and balance activities.

Interpreter: Mrs. Margaret Thoreson.

Lindstrom Hall basement—football workshop: Harvey Haynes, coach, Washington School:

A. "Passing and Pass Defense"-main speaker, Roy Sandberg, vice principal of Hudson Bay High School, Vancouver, Wash.

B. "Offensive and Defensive Line Maneuvers"—Elliott Igleheart, assistant

and line coach, Washington School.

C. "Making Use of the Material We Have Available"—Harvey Haynes. Interpreter: Barry Griffing.

LESS SPECTATORS—MORE PARTICIPANTS

(DONALD A. PADDEN, assistant professor, physical education, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.)

All over the country, school enrollment is mounting, yet we find that even if the school size has multiplied, the same number of boys participate in interscholastic sports. What was a reasonably good interscholastic program 10 years ago in a particular school may be totally inadequate now with a larger enrollment. At a 500-1,000pupil school only 7 percent of the boys play football in the fall, less than 5 percent basketball and baseball, virtually the same boys, with

a few exceptions, play all three sports.

This means that approximately 90 percent of the boys are encouraged to become bleacher athletes, while the 10 percent who least need the benefits of school sports are showered with a disproportionate amount of public funds and facilities. Providing benefits for only 10 percent of the boys is not good enough in a democracy and certainly unsound educationally. Why should the "select few," designated as the school representative teams in the various sports, receive all the time and attention, while the vast majority of pupils are left to their own resources insofar as wholesome and supervised competition is concerned. One might as logically segregate a few highly gifted pupils in English, mathematics, and science, then focus the entire attention of instructors on the development of these students, thus leaving the 90 percent of pupils to solve their own problems.

The benefits of wholesome competitive athletics and sports should be enjoyed by every pupil within a school. We are supposed to be educating the whole child and all the children. A good physical educator, if he cares to use his imagination, has the answer to this problem in intramural sports. Intramural sports or sports within the walls, are receiving greater attention and recognition in the schools today than ever before. At the present time intramurals are growing rapidly throughout the country. They are without question the field of most rapid development in school physical education. One is likely to think of intramurals as something new in the program; as a matter of fact, these contests within school communities were the first forms of competitive sport and preceded both the required physical education program and the interscholastic (varsity) teams of today. So, in seeking expansion in this field as so many schools

are now doing, they are only returning to their first love.

That intramurals are an integral part of any good physical education program has become a recognized fact. No modern program of physical education can be said to be complete, nor can it be designed to meet the needs of all boys and girls unless it fosters a program of intramural sports. A modern well-balanced program of physical education generally consists of three phases which are, regular physical education activities, intramural sports, and varsity athletics. There should not be any conflict between the principles and objectives of any of the three phases of the broad program. There is room and need for all, and if they are properly conducted, the three areas should complement each other. There is no criticism against interscholastic athletics; both they and intramural sports occupy important places in the school physical education program, promoting varsity athletics for the topflight athletes and intramurals for all others.

There is no more fertile soil for an intramural program than a residential school for the deaf. The fact that deaf pupils live on campus and away from home makes them well adapted for intramural competition that carries over the whole year. However, my personal observances and interviews with students at Gallaudet College show that the intramural phase of a complete physical education program is

neglected or even ignored in many schools for the deaf.

If the welfare of every pupil is kept foremost in mind, the intramural program cannot and must not be neglected. "Every" pupil means both boys and girls, and also means the strong and weak, the tall and short, the physically handicapped, and those with below average, average, and above average skill. There are numerous values of the intramural sports from which the pupils may derive through participation. In any group of individuals there are many likes and dislikes, and we find one individual interested in one game, and not interested in another game. For this reason the intramural program is rich in the activities it offers. The individual, where the program is well organized, may choose from many games and sports such as touch football, soccer, basketball, volleyball, hockey, softball, track and field, swimming, wrestling, badminton, tennis, archery, fencing, horseshoes, golf, etc. This wide range of activities accommodates a large number of individuals. The pupil is able to fill his entire time with the type of activity which he enjoys most. It is not necessary for him to resort to questionable amusement for want of something

A rich and varied field of competitive activities will provide for the pupil for success in many and varied abilities. The boy who is not a success in basketball may become an expert in volleyball or horseshoe pitching. Whenever a boy achieves a small success in a competitive game, he is quite likely to continue to participate because of the joy and pleasure he gets from it, regardless of whether or not he has varsity ambitions.

Intramural sports develop sportsmanship, cooperation, good fellowship, friendliness, and many other desirable qualities because of the conditions under which the games are played. The boy must compete against fellows of his acquaintance, perhaps even his roommate. For this reason he can ill afford to be a poor sport. It takes a hardy soul to stand or ignore criticism if he does not play the game and live up to what is expected of his fellows.

Let us who are assigned to the physical education department have vision. Let us revitalize our programs so that they will challenge the interests of our pupils, wake up sleepy spirits and help all pupils to physical fitness. We feel that competitive sports should reach every pupil and the words, "sports for all" should be a living reality. It is an extension of the old proverb, "Where there is a will, there is a way." You, too, should make the way—the kids need and deserve it.

NECESSARY BASKETBALL FUNDAMENTALS

(Dr. Peter Wisher, Department of Health and Physical Education, Gallaudet College)

Defensive basketball

Many boys who enter Gallaudet College have not developed all of their defensive potential. Many are found to be lacking in top quality performance that is possible to achieve in our schools for the deaf. This is due in part to the misconceptions of defensive basketball. Too many boys feel that the time for letting down their guard, the time for relaxation is when on defense. This false notion presents a challenge to those concerned.

The athlete must try to stop the dribbler at midcourt. The first duty of this man is to watch the basket, fake at the dribbler with the head, shoulder and/or the whole body.

Standing under the backboard leaves too much area uncovered. He must "stay out of the rain"—stay about 4 feet in front of the basket. If a defensive man finds himself alone, with the offensive men moving in, he must feel confident that his teammates will come quickly to his assistance.

Should the offense form a triangle, the defensive man must keep in line with the basket and the ball. When the ball leaves the hand of an offensive man, the defensive player must slide to his new position while keeping in line with the basket.

Three men should be able to stop any offense if they keep a triangle on the ball at all times. He must do this while being middle conscious.

The four on five defense is good when the opponents do not have a good middle man. If one of the boys is poor on defense, keep him back to draw out one offensive man. If the offense succeeds in getting the ball in the middle, slide into another triangle on the ball. The defense is always good if the defensive players succeed in getting a triangle on the ball.

Zone defense

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The basic weakness is that the forwards don't shift correctly. The ball must be kept in the middle.

Offense against zone defense

A good offense against the zone is a 1-3-1. Set up the triangle before the defense sets up a triangle. A difficulty in playing against the zone is in keeping the defense moving. To accomplish this both the bounce and the chest pass are fine.

Offense against man-to-man defense

Favor patterns, not plays. Patterns can be adjusted to many situations. Most plays cover single situations. The three front court men could weave. Teammates should be set up and the defense cut off.

Rebounding

Rebounding is not important in basketball—it is basketball. Form an offensive triangle. The player must not only get in position for a rebound, he must get inside and put the opponents at a disadvantage.

Fast break

Unfortunately, many ball games are lost because of the use of the dangerous long pass. Dribble after a rebound to the opponents foul line and if rushed, stop and wait for the forwards to set up the offensive triangle. If three men are setting up a triangle, one man might move around and find himself in the open.

Jump ball

Don't tap the ball. Bat it to the sidelines.

Discussion of free throws

The consensus of opinion is that in practice more exact game conditions should exist. Practice free throws would be more effective if two or three free throws would be practiced intermittently with scrimmage. This man, then, practicing his free throw, is tired as he will be in a game.

Also, a man could practice two shots with the utmost concentration, and then move on to the next man. He shouldn't change his style frequently during the season. Choose one style and stick to it.

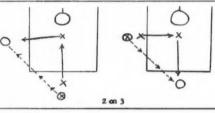
BASKETBALL

DEFENSE

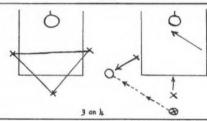


- 1. Take all.
- 2. Don't turn your back to ball
- 3. Let offense shoot out
- 4. Stop dribbling with a fake on way
- 5. Keep out of the rain

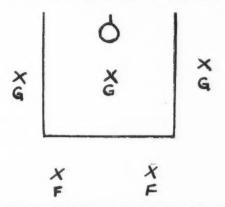
1 on 2, 3



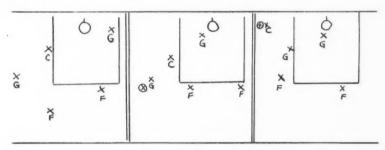
1. On short pass do not switch



- 1. Defense used 70% of time
- 2. Move when ball leaves the hands of the passer



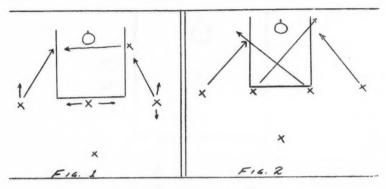
The 2--3 defense is so called because of the position the defensive players take while waiting for the ball to come down the court. Actually, it develops into anything but a 2--3 defense. It probably would be more correctly called a sliding zone. It may appear to be a switching man-to-man defense when functioning properly.



Figures 1, 2, and 3 show defense situations as the ball gets progressively deeper. Notice how a triangle is formed by three players. The triangle is kept on the ball at all times. The coach, when teaching this defense, can be assured his players are moving correctly if the triangle is there, regardless of the slides discussed herein.

Probably the most difficult switch is made by the center and the guard in figure 3. Usually the center takes the man in the corner. However, in the event a team has a tall player, or a good rebounder, it may be more effective to keep him in the center and not slide him to the corner. In this case, the guard must shift to the corner.

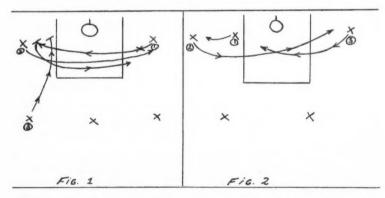
Also, notice in figures 2 and 3 that the one forward covers the side; the other forward is responsible for long passes.



OFFENSE AGAINST A ZONE DEFENSE

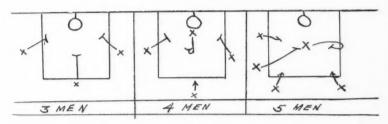
Probably the strongest and most common attack against zone defense is the 1–3–1 offense (fig. 1). The 1–3–1 attempts to keep the ball moving and to set up offensive triangles. Variations of the basic 1–3–1 are quite common. One of the unusual offenses that I will explain is the 1–4, or the double pivot. The object of any attack against a zone should be to overload a certain area, thus forcing the defenders to keep moving. Short, crisp passes are necessary. Dribbling should not be permitted except to drive for the basket. Perhaps, as a famous coach once remarked, the best way to practice attacking a zone would be to let the air out of the ball.

The long pass is to be avoided as a general rule. The bounce pass is the slowest pass and also is to be avoided.



The writer has observed one offense that for simplicity and effectiveness is difficult to surpass (Roanoke College). This offense against man-to-man defense consists of a three-man weave in the front court with two guards out (fig. 2). This can also be functioned from a 3–2 (fig. 1). The deep men must keep moving in either case and constantly attempt to pick defensive men. Variations with a two-man pickoff are also possible.

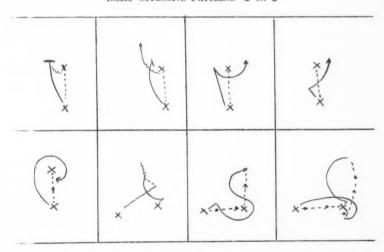
REBOUNDING



Proper rebounding cannot be overemphasized. Plain logic tells us that if we can shoot with our opponents and we get more rebounds than they do, we will have more shooting attempts and consequently increase our chances for victory.

In rebounding, it is best to position a man on either side of the basket and one before it thus having a man on all sides. Three men should be sufficient to control any backboard. It is of great importance that no opponent get inside your rebounding triangle. Players should be block conscious as well as rebound conscious. If the opponents should be exceptionally tall, the smaller fellow can often outrebound them with taps back to the forwards.

Basic Offensive Patterns-2 on 2



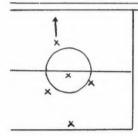
When playing against a man-to-man defense, the whole offense is basically two men against two defenders. Several basic patterns are shown above. Of course, there are many other variations.

A good move, an idea for any team that plays against a man-to-man defense week after week, would be to devote a large part of their practice sessions to having two offensive players against two defenders. For the sake of clarity, the defensive players are omitted from the illustrations.

THE FAST BREAK

The fast break is recognized by most coaches as an effective weapon when properly used. It usually starts with a long pass from the rebounder to one of the forwards, breaking up the center or to the side line. It is this initial long pass or succeeding long passes which often destroy its effectiveness (observe this in the movie).

In order to keep possession of the ball, and not lose it through a bad pass, the rebounder or the man receiving the pass should dribble down court to the foul circle. Then he must wait for the forwards to set up the offensive triangle. A fourth man, the tail, who follows the play, is often very effective if the opponents are looking for the break and have a defense set up for it.



JUMP BALL

The jump ball situation often results in a lost ball for the team that has the superior jumper. One good method of securing possession of the ball is to tap it toward the side lines.

A jump ball setup, that I observed in a junior high school game some years ago, appeared to have possibilities. This play has one man deep, two men on the circle, and one guard on the defensive foul line. The deep man makes it necessary for his guard to accompany him. This leaves a large area uncovered and a tap to this spot enhances the chances of success in securing possession of the ball. Modifications of this set up have interesting possibilities.

Workshop-Girls' Physical Education

(Leader: NITA HIETT, Arizona School for the Deaf, Tucson)

(Recorders: Judy Leenhouts, Barbara Tillinghast)

The workshop consisted of two parts: a film on movement education and a demonstration applying this to gymnastics.

The film, "Basic Movement Education in England," 1 shows the physical education activities of English children demonstrating free movement in space. It starts with the beginning level and moves through the intermediate and advanced stages, showing the children's progress and greater awareness of space.

The purpose of the film is to show that by starting young children in these activities, such as hanging, climbing, jumping, and rhythm, they will acquire a greater flexibility and balance in regular sports and games

After the film, Miss Hiett brought up two questions for the group to think about.

- 1. What are we lacking in our physical education program?
- 2. Do we need this in our physical education program?

¹ The film can be obtained from Mrs. Elizabeth Ludwig, University of Michigan, physical education department for women, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Everyone agreed that this should be introduced at the primary level and incorporated with basic exercises and sports.

Another question discussed was how this could be carried out with

day children.

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Mrs. Mary Coll said that the Kansas school uses a jukebox in the gymnasium that provides enough vibrations for the children to feel the rhythm. In conjunction with this, Miss Lee Emerick said that the Riverside school has a raised floor for the purpose of conducting vibrations.

The group then moved to the gymnasium where they saw a demonstration by eight Oregon students on movement education applied to

gymnastics.

Three of the nine gymnastic events in their basic stages were presented. The work on the balance beam aroused the most interest, as most of the group had never seen it used in the physical education program.

The balance beam provides excellent training in balance and poise,

which is what movement education is striving for.

At the afternoon session of the workshop, we discussed the possibilities of setting up the Mail-O-Graphic Decathlon. This has worked in several of the blind schools as a means of motivating the students.

The program, which will start experimentally next fall, will be separated into two groups. The western group consists of the physical education departments from Arizona, California, Oregon, Washington, and Montana. The midwestern group will be represented by

Kansas, Missouri, Colorado, Utah, and New Mexico.

For the first year we will follow the outline set up by Dr. Buell at the California School for the Blind at Berkeley. It has nine events which the students will be timed on and rated according to their age, and award points. The events are softball throw, standing hop, step, and jump, squat thrust, situps, rope jumps, standing broad jumps, modified push up, 600 yard run-walk, and hanging.

The corresponding secretary from each group will issue a notice

of the results of each event.

The film can be obtained from Mrs. Elizabeth Ludwig, University of Michigan, Physical Education Department for Women, Ann Arbor, Mich.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I—Track—Techniques and Devices That Motivate Top Track Performance for Deaf Athletes

(DAVID FRALEY, coach, California School, Berkeley)

- 1. Present your track program with enthusiasm and spirit.
- 2. Proper emphasis and support from administration.
 - (a) At CSD track has top priority among all spring sports.

(b) This may be due to strong tradition.

(c) Only one coach.

(d) Track decathlon in physical education classes.

(e) Over "500" club.

3. Physical setup must be good.

(a) Attractive track and good pits.

(b) Proper maintenance of the track. It hurts team morale if track is allowed to run down during season.

4. Instill proper mental attitude in your boys.

(a) Self-confidence, spirit, determination. This can be done daily in a group after calisthenics.

(b) Discuss strong points of opponents before meets. Mini-

mize their weak points to fight overconfidence.

5. Use of helpful devices.
(a) Track signup sheets.

1. Post in dorms before season starts to get boys thinking about the events they want to enter.

2. Serves as early season indicator of interest, strength,

and weaknesses.

(b) Display strip pictures and form pictures on bulletin boards.

(1) Available in "Scholastic Coach," "Athletic Journal," "Pennsylvania Rubber Co."

(2) Excellent training aids and discussion topics for locker room.

(3) Humorous cartoons from paper or magazines.

(4) Keep a running record chart of individual points scored in meets.

(5) Record charts by season.

(6) Use track scoreboard on field during meets.(7) Utilize track box, shot and discus holders.

(8) Post school and league records.
(9) Enter all top meets in your area.
(10) Post all publicity about your team.
(11) Distribute your bulgry lists to all teach

(11) Distribute vocabulary lists to all teachers.

TRAINING SYSTEM EMPLOYED AT CSD BERKELEY

1. Daily group calisthenics led by team captains.

(a) This insures proper warmup procedures under watchful eye of coach.

(b) Chance to check for injuries.

(c) Check the roll.

(d) Give captains authority and leadership.

2. Jog a lap and swing a lap.

3. Group meeting for discussion, instruction, etc.

4. Veteran tracksters are appointed by coach to lead and carry out training instructions for various events.

(a) One outstanding boy is chosen to help train the sprinters

(75-, 100-, 150-, 200-yard-dash men).

(b) The same for middle distance (330, 440, 660, 880).(c) The same for distance runners (1,320 and mile).

(d) The same for weight and field events.

5. As season progresses the coach places in the hands of these veterans the schedules for early season, middle season, and late season.

6. As team breaks up into its respective groups the coach circulates, giving pointers and help wherever needed.

"GIMMICKS" USED AT CSDB IN PRACTICE AND MEETS

1. All equipment, tools, standards, shot and discus circles, etc., are painted in school colors.

2. Facilities:

(a) Logs for shotput area.

(b) Colored stakes, metal tags, or painted markers used for track working. We use white for starts and finishing, black for low hurdles, red for high hurdles, yellow for relay zones.

(c) Colored stakes indicating every 10 feet on broad jump and

pole vault runways.

3. Equipment:

(a) Outdoor scoreboard (portable).

(b) Sandbags on pole vault standard bases. (c) Saw off baseball bats for block hammers.

(d) Broad jump rake (handle 6 feet long, 2- by 4-inch crosspiece 4 feet long).

(e) Start and finish signs for meets.

(f) Discus markers—surveyors arrows. (g) Leather shot and discus carriers.

(h) Track box.

(i) Pole vault bar lifters—make from old crossbars with metal piece bolted on end.

(i) High jump measuring stick.

(k) Clap starter.

(1) Black powder shells for making relay steps.

(m) Color relay lime in envelopes.
(n) Traveling bags in school colors.

4. Training aids:

(a) Weight belts and jackets.

(b) Strapped discus.

(c) Broad jump aid, bamboo pole and flag to hit with head. (d) First aid available for sprains (Kwik-Kold, Ace bandage).

5. Miscellaneous:

(a) Well-supplied first-aid kit available.(b) Tools available.

(c) Old crossbars and standards left out.

(d) Instructions for judges on back of field event clip boards.

(e) Insurance.

(f) Parents' consent.

The corresponding secretary from each group will issue a notice of the results of each event.

WORKSHOP IV-FOOTBALL

(Leader: Harvey Haynes, Washington School, Vancouver) (Recorder: E. H. IGLEHEART, Washington School, Vancouver)

1. Passing and pass defense, Roy Sandberg, Hudson's Bay High School, Vancouver, Wash.

2. Two common problems in line play, combative measures and drills, E. H. Igleheart, Washington School.

3. Making use of the material we have available, Harvey Haynes, Washington School.

(a) Recognition that successful coaching is no more than 25

percent coach and no less than 75 percent players.

(b) Deployment of skills available among a limited number of players to the most useful position or combination of positions.

(c) Combining as many systems and methods as possible to provide a versatile attack for a limited number of skilled players.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 28, 1961

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Workshop III (continued), Homemaking: Mrs. Bernice Owens, Arkansas

Main Building-Section leader: Paul E. McLelland, principal, Virginia School, Staunton.

SESSION II

$9-10 \ a.m.$

"Leisure Time, Moneymaking Hobbies for the Deaf Girl and Homemaker."

Presiding: Mrs. Waneta Davies, Oregon.

Recorder: Mrs. Adele Krug, Kendall School, Washington, D.C.

Hostess: Mrs. Gertrude Gordon, Colorado. "Cake Decorating and the Art of Making Sugar Forms," Vivian Freeman, home economist, Amalgamated Sugar Co.

10:15-11:30 a.m.

"New Directions for Improved Teaching-A Look Ahead."

Presiding: LeNora Hudson, Oklahoma. Recorder: Mrs. Adele Krug, Kendall School, Washington, D.C.

Hostess: Mrs. Gertrude Gordon, Colorado.

SYMPOSIUM

"Our Objective, Should It Be To Prepare Girls for a Vocation or Preparation for Homemaking?" Mrs. Dora B. Laramie, Utah School.
"The Homemaking Curriculum," Mrs. Gertrude Krehbiel, Kansas School.
"Effective Methods of Teaching":

"Home Management": Mrs. Mabel C. Armstrong, Washington. "Family Relationship"; Mrs. Vera Ruckdeshel, Rhode Island.

"Child Care": Mrs. Viola McDowell, Montana.

"Clothing": Miss Nelly Nerhus, Kansas.

Group discussion-Interpreters: Mrs. Tommy Hall, Eloise Kennedy.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I-Homemaking

(Leader: Mrs. Waneta Davies, Oregon School, Salem)

(Recorder: Joanne Meek, California School, Riverside)

(Consultant: VIVIAN FREEMAN, educational director, White Satin Sugar)

Mrs. Freeman presented a variety of ideas that could be used as money-raising projects. She grouped her ideas into three areas.

1. Area of baking—including cakes, cookies, pies, pastries, etc.

2. Area of holiday items—including sugar molds, candies, decora-

tions, ornaments, etc.

3. Area of food preservation—including all types of canned foods. Of special interest were canned nutmeats and foods canned with sugar substitutes to produce low-calorie foods.

Before items can be sold, students must practice and learn to produce professional-looking products, attractively packaged. The students should also know the food laws of their State.

Students and teachers may receive information from the following

sources:

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rads. gar 1. Home economists in business in your State.

Electrical Women's Round Table—home economists who represent major appliance companies.

3. Wholesalers of fancy bakery food products and equipment.

Workshop II—Homemaking—Symposium

(Leader: Lenora Hudson, Oklahoma School, Sulphur) (Recorder: Joanne Meek, California School, Riverside)

1. Mrs. Dora B. Laramie, Utah School

Our objective, should it be to prepare girls for a vocation, or prepa-

ration for homemaking?

The general objective of home economics should be to prepare girls for complete living. In the majority of schools, homemaking is not taught as a vocation. In order to fulfill the roles of the wage earner, homemaker, and citizen, every deaf girl should be given every opportunity for both vocational and homemaking education.

2. Mrs. Gertrude Krehbiel, Kansas School—"The Homemaking Curriculum"

A study was made of courses of study from 24 schools. The following were the principal conclusions of the study:

1. There is a great variation in schools to the time spent in home-

making by the students.

2. The girls range in age from 10 to 21, the average beginning age was 13.

3. Size of classes ranged from 3 to 18; the average was from 6 to 8

students per class.
4. Areas of learning varied greatly, but most teachers seemed aware of the need for a diversified program.

5. Major problems raised during the study were:

(a) What is the best division of time for teaching different units?

(b) Methods for teaching measurements to the students.

(c) More stress is needed on the use of equipment, child care, home decoration, management and health.

3. Mrs. Mabel C. Armstrong, Washington School—"Effective Methods of Teaching Home Management"

Good management is the ability to make decisions. The best results are achieved by beginning with a few arbitrary rules and then gradually giving the students a variety of decisions to make, including the use of time within the classroom. Management can be taught in some aspect in every unit.

4. Mrs. Vera Ruckdeshel, Rhode Island School—"Family Relations"

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Family relations must be lived and experienced to be meaningful to any of us. Lack of a normal homelife would be an obstacle in teaching family living in a residential school. The technique of "role playing" can be used to make ideas more vivid. The three main areas where many adult deaf have difficulty in family relations are:

(a) Ignorance of where to seek help for family problems.

(b) Lack of judgment in installment buying.
(c) Lack of knowledge of their legal rights.

5. Mrs. Viola McDowell, Montana School-"Child Care"

There are two main goals in teaching child care. First to teach students to live happily with young children, and, second, to help prepare girls for the job of being a good mother. Two ways to learn about children are to take advantage of the material in books, films, and other educational materials and to have experiences with children.

6. Miss Nelly Nerhus, Kansas School-"Clothing"

The curriculum, room conditions, and the time of class vary greatly in different schools. The overall goals in any program should include:

(a) To develop the ability to be personally attractive to others.

(b) To develop good judgment in selecting clothing.

(c) To develop ability to construct and remodel clothing.

BUSINESS MEETING

The group voted to form an organization of homemaking teachers as part of the vocational section. Connie Black, LeNora Hudson, and Vera Ruckdeshel drew up a constitution which was accepted by the group. This is subject to the approval of the officers of the convention. The following officers were elected for a 2-year term:

Chairman: Vera Ruckdeshel, Rhode Island School, Providence. Vice chairman: Viola McDowell, Montana School, Great Falls. Secretary-treasurer: Joanne Meek, California School, Riverside.

CONSTITUTION OF THE HOMEMAKING SECTION OF THE VOCATIONAL SECTION OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

ARTICLE I. NAME

This association shall be called the Homemaking Section of the Vocational Section of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

ARTICLE II. OBJECTS

The obects of this association shall be:

First, to secure the harmonious union in one organization of all persons actually engaged in educating the deaf in America in homemaking and related trades.

Second, to provide for general meetings of such persons from time to time, with a view of affording opportunities for a free interchange of views concerning methods and means of educating the deaf in homemaking and related trades.

Third, as an association to stand committed to no particular theory, method. or system, and adopting as its guide the following motto, "Any method for good results; all methods, and wedded to none."

ARTICLE III. MEMBERS

Section I

All persons actively engaged in the education of the deaf in homemaking and related trades.

Section II

Any person may become an honorary member of the association, enjoying all the rights and priviliges of membership except of voting and holding office, on being elected by vote of the association.

Section III

Each person joining the association shall pay annual dues of \$1.

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS

Section i

At each general meeting of the association there shall be elected by ballot a section chairman, a vice chairman, a secretary-treasurer. These three with the immediate past chairman shall form the standing executive committee of the association. They shall continue in office until their successors are elected. At the last meeting of the homemaking section, the nomination committee which is appointed by the chairman should report on the proposed new slate of officers. The standing executive committee shall have power to fill all vacancies occurring between general meeting and transact such business as is necessary.

Section II

All officers and members of committees must be active members of the association in regular standing.

Section III

The standing committee shall make a full report at each general meeting of all the operations of the association, including receipts and disbursements of funds, since the preceding meeting.

ARTICLE V. MEETINGS

Section I

General meetings of the association shall be held biennially in connection with the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf and the vocational section of this convention.

Section II

The business of the association shall be transacted at the general meetings.

ARTICLE VI. AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be amended by an affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members present at any general meeting of the association.

ARTICLE VII. NEWSLETTERS

The homemaking section of the vocational section of the American Instructors of the Deaf shall issue a newsletter semiannually. The size and type of this publication shall be determined by the executive committee. The chairman of the association shall be responsible in arranging for the publication and distributing of this letter.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 28, 1961

1:15 p.m.

Play shed—General business meeting.

President: Richard G. Brill, presiding.

Invocation: The Reverend George Almo, Episcopal Church Work Among the Deaf, Columbus, Ohio.

Interpreters: William J. McClure, Ralph Hoag, and Kenneth Huff.

(The meeting was called to order by President Brill, and the invocation given by the Reverend George Almo, Episcopal Church Work Among the Deaf, Columbus, Ohio.)

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Dr. Brill. According to the constitution of this organization, 100 members constitute a quorum. Also, according to the constitution, it is mandatory to have 150 members present if an amendment to the constitution is offered. Will those persons present who are members of this organization, please raise your right hand? Thank you. The Chair recognizes that there are more than 150 members present.

We have three telegrams that I would like to read. The first is signed by Joe Shinpaugh, superintendent of the Virginia School.

Best wishes for a most successful convention. Sorry cannot be there due to budget meetings.

The next telegram is from Ed and Eleanor Scouten from Gallaudet College.

Best wishes to the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf for a most successful week. We wish we could be with you.

Before reading the third, which is actually a cablegram, I would like to explain that the California School for the Deaf in Riverside this year sent one of our teachers as an exchange teacher to Australia. She went in January, because the school year in Australia commences in February, and in exchange we have a teacher from Australia. That teacher is here today, Miss Eunice Rolls, and I would like to have her stand so you can see who she is. Thank you. This cablegram is from our teacher in Australia, Mrs. Doris Delong.

Best wishes from Australia for a very successful 1961 convention.

At this time I would like to call on Dr. George Detmold to give you an announcement in regard to deafness, speech, and hearing abstracts.

Dr. Detmold. This is not an announcement but a sales pitch. I hold here in my hand volume I, No. 3, of a very attractive and useful magazine called DSH Abstracts. The DSH is for deafness, speech, and hearing. Inside the magazine are 344 abstracts or summaries of books and articles recently written in the field of deafness, speech, and hearing. These summaries were written by a small army of over 50 abstractors, and 3 assistant associate editors, who work for the organization that puts out this magazine.

The purpose of the publication is to keep us all up to date in our field. There is no person in this room, I am sure, who, even if he could read six or seven languages, could begin to search regularly the more than 200 publications that are regularly searched in the compilation of this magazine.

It seems to me that it is an indispensable journal for any teacher of the deaf, and I would like to make just one other point about it. Nobody makes any money from it. It has to be self-supported by its subscribers. The stamp of Gallaudet College and of the teacher of the deaf is very strong here. I, myself, am the president of the board of directors that issues the magazine. Powrie Doctor is also on the board of directors. The editor is a member of the Gallaudet College faculty. The assistant editor is none other than your own president, Richard Brill, who is in charge of the entire area of deafness.

Now so far we have just had 1,500 subscriptions to this magazine, of which 91 are teachers of the deaf—these 91 out of 4,350 teachers of the deaf listed in the January Annals. We publish this in cooperation with the American Speech & Hearing Association, and we are very fortunate in that arrangement, but I don't think we would be in the position of being patronized or supported by the American Speech &

Hearing Association. If they can find over 1,000 member subscribers

to this thing, we ought to be able to do just as good.

What does it cost you? It costs you \$5 for four issues each year. If you are not a member of this association, it would cost you \$8, so you get a bargain there. If you joined this year you would get all back issues, as well as the issues yet to be published. In the back of the auditorium you will find a large number of these little brochures. Attached to each of them is a subscription order form. All you have to do here is detach it, put your name and address on it, and send it to the address indicated, and you can even mark the box that says, "Bill me." It's a very painless procedure, it seems to me, that will add greatly to our professional standing in this organization. Thanks for listening.

Dr. Brill. Next, I will call for the treasurer's report from Tom

Dillon.

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TREASURER'S REPORT

JUNE 28, 1961.

To Dr. Richard G. Brill, President, Officers, and Members of the Board of Directors, Members of the American Instructors of the Deaf.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: As treasurer of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, I beg to submit the following report, covering the period from June 10, 1959, to June 9, 1961. You will please note that some of the information in this report has been brought up to the date of this report.

In addition to the inspection and verification of my records by the auditing committee appointed by Dr. Brill, all of my records, transactions, and accounts have been examined by a firm of certified public accountants and their report is being included as a part of this report.

Collections:

ections:	
1959 membership fees collected after June 10, 1959 (total mem-	
bership for 1959, 2,421 members)	
One life membership fee: Dr. Edward R. Abernathy	
Registration fees at Colorado Springs in 1959:	
Members at \$2	1, 238, 00
Visitors at \$1	
Total	1, 339. 00
1960 membership fees (2,317 members at \$2)	4, 634, 00
1961 membership fees to June 9, 1961 (2,538 members at \$2)	
Collections turned over to American Instructors of the Deaf by	
the Colorado School for the Deaf:	
Excess over expenses	2, 608, 09
Repayment of advance	
Total	
Income from series G Government bonds:	
U.S. Treasury check, Dec. 8, 1959	25, 00
U.S. Treasury check, June 8, 1960	
U.S. Treasury check, Dec. 15, 1960	
U.S. Treasury check, June 5, 1961	
Total	100, 00
Refund on check No. 55 by Oregon School for the Deaf	19, 83
Travel refund	3.74
Total collections	14, 363, 09
Cash: First National Bank of Santa Fe, N. Mex., on June	
10, 1959	3, 624. 88
Total	18, 011. 54

Payments:	3, 624. 88 3, 349. 20 3, 000. 00
On deposit, June 10, 1959, with Albuquerque Federal Savings & Loan Association	3, 349. 20 3, 000. 00
& Loan Association	3, 349, 20
U.S. series G Treasury bonds Total Payments:	3, 000. 00
TotalPayments:	
Payments:	0 074 09
Payments:	9, 914. 00
77 711	
Expenditures	10, 726, 17
Transfer to Albuquerque Federal Savings & Loan Association	
Safe deposit box rental	
Error—duplicate payment later corrected	100.00
Total	14, 831. 67
Recapitalation:	
Total collections and cash carried forward	18, 011. 54
Total payments and deposit transfer	
Balance	3, 179. 87
Capital, June 9, 1961:	
Cash in account with First National Bank of Santa Fe, N. Mex	3, 179, 87
On deposit with Albuquerque Federal Savings & Loan Associ-	
ation	7, 728. 28
U.S. Treasury bonds, series G	3, 000. 00
Total	13, 908. 15

Our membership has continued its trend of increasing during years of our conventions. An indication of our growth is shown in the following tabulation:

M	embers	I M	emi	bers
	1, 270 2, 007 2, 154	1961		$\frac{421}{602}$

Total disbursements at our 1959 meeting in Colorado Springs were: Expenses paid by the Colorado School for the Deaf, \$9,888.47; expenses paid by the American Instructors of the Deaf, \$470.11; total expenses for our 1959 conven-

Collections above expenses at our 1959 convention: Excess collections by the Colorado School for the Deaf, \$2,608.09; registration fees, \$1,339; total income above expenses at our 1959 convention, \$3,947.09.

Registration at our 1961 meeting here in Salem at the Oregon School for the Deaf now totals 634.

I wish to thank everyone for the support and cooperation that is being extended to the American Instructors of the Deaf and in particular to the treasurer.

Very sincerely,

THOMAS DILLON, Treasurer.

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21 ot THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

Statement of receipts, disbursements, and capital June 9, 1959, to June 6, 1961

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Receipts:	
Membership fees:	
1959	\$86.00
1960	4, 634, 00
1961	5, 076, 00
Life membership	20, 00
Registration fees at Colorado Springs 1959 convention	1, 339, 00
Excess of 1959 convention maintenance collections over expenses	,
(including refund of \$500 advance)	3, 108, 09
Interest on U.S. Treasury bonds	
Interest on savings and loan deposits	
Miscellaneous refunds of expenses	
Total receipts	14, 765. 74
D' la constant de la	
Disbursements:	0 0== 00
Contributions and assistance to American Annals of the Deaf	
Travel of AID delegates to conferences and meetings 1961 convention arrangements expenses (including \$500 ad-	
vance)	928.17
Convention proceedings expenses, 1959	
Salaries and expenses of the treasurer's office, including audit	
Convention speakers' and leaders' expenses, 1959	
Postage, supplies, and telephone	
Contribution to the Council of National Organizations of Children	
and Youth	100.00
Contributions to the Council on Education of the Deaf	
Miscellaneous expenses	119.69
Total disbursements	
Excess of receipts over disbursements	3, 934. 07
Capital, June 9, 1959	9, 974. 08
O-4-1 T 0 1001	10 000 15
Capital, June 6, 1961	13, 908. 15
Capital represented by:	
Cash in 1st National Bank of Santa Fe, N. Mex	
Deposits in Albuquerque Federal Savings & Loan Association	
U.S. Treasury bonds, series G, at face value	3, 000. 00
Total	19 000 15

ACCOUNTANTS' REPORT

The Board of Directors, The Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf:

We have examined the statement of receipts, disbursements, and capital for the period from June 9, 1959 to June 6, 1961 of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf (a nonprofit educational corporation without capital stock). Our examination was made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards, and included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances.

Recorded receipts were traced to the depositary. All checks paid during the period under review were inspected and compared with the respective entries in the cash journal. All of such disbursements were supported by invoices or were approved by the President. Cash on deposit at June 6, 1961, of \$3,179.87 was confirmed direct to us by the First National Bank of Santa Fe, N. Mex. The deposit of \$7,728.28 with the Albuquerque Federal Savings & Loan Association was confirmed direct to us by the association. The U.S. Treasury bonds with a face value of \$3,000 were inspected.

As the statement was prepared on a cash basis, we are unable to express an opinion on the financial position of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf at June 6, 1961; however, in our opinion, the statement of receipts, disbursements, and capital presents fairly the cash transactions for the period of June 9, 1959 to June 6, 1961, and the cash balances and investments of the Convention at June 6, 1961, in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles applied on a basis consistent with that of the preceding period.

Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Co., Certified Public Accountants.

ALBUQUERQUE, N. MEX., June 9, 1961.

Dr. Brill. I wish again to publicly express my appreciation to Mr. Dillon, who is the highly conscientious and highly qualified treasurer of our organization.

I will now call on Mr. Jack Brady, who is superintendent of the West Virginia School, and the chairman of the auditing committee, to give his report.

Mr. Brady. Mr. President, and members of the convention. The auditing committee has examined the books and found them to be in order, and we recommend that the report of the treasurer be approved.

Dr. Brill. Thank you, Mr. Brady. You have heard the motion presented by Mr. Brady. I would like to point out to you the acceptance of the report of the auditing committee in itself constitutes acceptance of the report of the treasurer. Do I hear a second? It is seconded by Mr. Huff. All in favor will please raise their right hand. Opposed. The motion is passed unanimously.

It is customary in this organization to have a report from the necrology committee at the meeting of the organization, but to have such a report, it is prepared by Powrie Doctor as editor of the Annals, and is printed with the proceedings. I would ask for a motion which would authorize the acceptance of such report to be published in the proceedings. Do I hear a motion? Mr. Grace so moves, and it is seconded by Mr. Pearson. You have heard the motion to receive the necrology report from the committee. All those in favor, please raise your right hand. Opposed. It is so ordered.

We have had a special committee during the past year under the chairmanship of Lloyd Ambrosen to make a study of the dues situation, and I would call on Mr. Ambrosen to make a report for that committee.

REPORT OF DUES STUDY COMMITTEE

(LLOYD AMBROSEN, Maryland School, Frederick)

In October 1960 a committee to study the problem of dues to the American Instructors of the Deaf was appointed by Dr. Richard G. Brill, president of the AID. The committee was selected on the basis of geographical distribution of schools for the deaf. This assured representation of all parts of the Nation.

The committee felt it would be proper to secure opinions and factual information from all schools, public, private, and denominational

schools enrolling pupils on a residential and day school basis. To this end a questionnaire was prepared that would reflect views of administrators and teachers.

Type of school	Number	Number of	Percentage
	sent	replies	of replies
Day school	10	5	50
Day classes	329	84	26
Residential	71	39	56
Schools for the multiple handicapped	10	5	50
Total	420	133	31

Since it would not be appropriate to present a detailed report at this meeting the summary will be brief.

A summary of replies to the questionnaire indicated the follow-

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al al 1. It was suggested that dues should range from \$2 to \$13 with \$5 most frequently mentioned.

2. Very few schools favored a sliding scale to determine the amount

each person should pay.

3. Replies to a question posing the proposition of combining dues and subscripitions to the American Annals of the Deaf received 69 favorable votes while 27 were negative. (Most of the affirmative indications came from day school and day class teachers.)

4. Estimates for the cost of a joint secretary for the AID and the Conference of Executives ranged from \$10,000 to \$76,000 per year.

5. A large majority of schools report teachers as being members of several other professional organizations which means teachers are already paying no small amount of money in dues each year.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE DUES STUDY COMMITTEE

1. The question of combining dues and subscriptions to the American Annals of the Deaf should be resolved by the officers of the American Instructors of the Deaf and the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

This problem is of such scope that it will need special study.

2. The expenses of a central office and a joint secretariat for the AID and the Conference of Executives is of such a nature that this would be dependent on a greatly expanded program of services of the AID and the Conference of Executives. It is up to these two organizations in joint studies to state the needs and project possible activities that would require a full-time joint secretary. The possibility of a part-time secretary should be considered which would cost less and serve during the interim until the feasibility of a full-time paid joint secretary is determined and established.

An important factor involved in plans for an executive secretary is the recent founding of the Council on Education of the Deaf established by the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, the Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf, and the American Instructors of the Deaf. It would be appropriate to explore the interests of the council with

reference to a joint secretariat.

3. From increased dues the board of directors could set aside funds, from time to time, that would enable a possible joint secretariat to have a sound financial base for implementation of an expanded program that would be ex-

pected of such an office.

4. In order for the American Instructors of the Deaf to assume its full obligations in the Council on Education of the Deaf, we should be assured of sufficient funds to support the CED. In its initial contribution a total of \$200 was placed in the CED treasury. The AID has four representatives to the CED and in order that the AID representation be effective the expenses of these representatives should be fully covered by the AID.

5. The AID should be represented at all meetings held or sponsored by the Federal Government and conventions of national organizations having interests in the education of the deaf. The president or his representative should have

their expenses paid by the AID.

6. Much more can be done toward publicizing the profession of teaching the deaf for the purpose of attracting young people to enter our specialized teaching field. Promotions via brochures, newspapers, magazines, radio, and television should be utilized. Promotions of this type are costly and the American Instructors of the Deaf should assume some responsibility for financing such

7. Dramatic advances are being made in the formulation of science and mathematics courses of study prepared by experts employed by national founda-tions such as the National Science Foundation and others. Such courses of study are prepared for the public high schools throughout the country. These foundations receive hundreds of thousands of dollars to perform such tasks while our special field gets very little benefit except for a few individuals who take the initiative to do something for their own classes or schools. are other subject areas covered by other foundations.

If we are to gain benefits from such advances in courses of study we will need to provide funds or stipends for master teachers in our profession to adapt and adopt appropriate courses for use in all of our schools for the deaf. If we can provide these services it may be possible to obtain matching funds in some instances. This could clearly be one of the most dramatic procedures the American Instructors of the Deaf could perform that would be of direct benefit

to our classroom teachers.

8. Another area for study involves an analysis of educational television teaching techniques. Studies should be made to determine feasibility and appropriateness of educational TV for schools for the deaf. This is needed since the trend is toward centralization of the origin of the broadcasts with many schools participating on an area basis such as an entire State or groups of States. Here again classroom teachers could make such studies if stipends would be avail-In some instances we may need help from personnel in colleges and universities in this new and exciting educational technique.

9. The American Instructors of the Deaf will need the full cooperation of, and cooperate with, the Conference of Executives in order that some of the sugges-

tions and projects mentioned above may be carried out successfully.

10. With the thought that an increase in dues would enable the AID to increase its activities, as indicated above, the committee moves that the dues to the AID be increased to \$5 per annum effective January 1, 1962.

Respectfully submitted.

Lloyd A. Ambrosen, Chairman, Maryland School for the Deaf; Sam B. Craig, Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf: Arthur S. Myklebust, South Dakota School for the Deaf; Edward W. Reay, Idaho School for the Deaf and the Blind; John M. Wallace, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind; Thomas Dillon, Treasurer, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf: Mervin D. Garretson, Montana School for the Deaf; Sister Rose Gertrude, St. Mary's School for the Deaf, Buffalo; Juliet Mc-Dermott, South Carolina School for the Deaf and the Blind; Helen Dial, Illinois School for the Deaf; Elliott Igleheart, Washington School for the Deaf; Roy K. Halcomb, Tennessee School for the Deaf; Mrs. Laura McCabe, Lexington School for the Deaf; Madeline Mussmano, California School for the Deaf at Riverside; Powrie V. Doctor, Editor, American Annals of the Deaf.

Mr. Ambrosen. There has been passed out to you a recommendation of the dues study committee. You will note at the end the names of all the members of this committee. I hope you will read all of this very carefully. If you want any explanations of the report, I will be glad to try to answer them.

At this time, the committee moves that article III, section 4, of the constitution shall be amended to read as follows: "Each person joining the association shall pay annual dues of \$5." This to be ef-

fective January 1, 1962.

Dr. Brill. You have heard the motion. I would like to have a second to the motion and then we will have discussion. Mr. Grace

I believe, in view of the report of the treasurer which showed a substantial amount of money in the treasury, that perhaps the question naturally will arise and does arise in your mind, why should there be any increase in dues, and that is the reason for handing you a copy of the committee's recommendation, to try to explain the reasons for recommending a dues increase.

There is a motion on the floor, and the Chair certainly would be happy to recognize anyone from the floor who wishes to speak for or against the motion, which is to amend the constitution to raise the dues from \$2 to \$5 per year. There is a question from the floor as to whether it will include a subscription to the Annals. The present recommendation does not include a subscription to the Annals in the increase in dues.

I think this is a very important step, a very significant step, and I would certainly dislike to have this body take such a step if anyone was opposed to it and did not get to express himself. I think anybody who is opposed to it should express himself at the present time, and if there is anyone who wants to reinforce its support, he should also be heard.

(There was a motion from the floor—the person making said motion not being identified—that the report be accepted.)

Dr. Brill. There is already a motion on the floor to that effect. Mr. Kirkley. I think it would be good if attention is called to the dues that are currently paid by teachers of the blind, and of similar organizations. This \$5, in my opinion, is a nominal fee as compared with what organizations such as this pay as yearly dues.

Dr. Brill. Anyone else? Do I hear a call for the question? The question is called. All those in favor of the motion, which is to amend the constitution, article III, section 4, to increase the dues from \$2 to \$5 a year, please indicate by raising your right hand. Opposed, same sign. It looks to me like it is a unanimous vote in favor of the motion.

I would like to express my appreciation to the members of this committee, Mr. Ambrosen and his committee of 14, who devoted so much time and effort to this study.

A resolution at the Colorado meeting was concerned with the question of houseparents or counselors, whatever term is used in the individual school, the question being whether they should or should not be eligible for membership in this organization, and also whether this organization, at its biennial meeting, should provide particular sections or workshops for them. I appointed a committee, with Mr. John Wallace, of Florida, as chairman, and I will ask him for his report at this time.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HOUSEPARENTS

(JOHN M. WALLACE, Florida School)

A committee consisting of Miss Elizabeth Benson, Gallaudet College; Mrs. Doris Orman, Illinois School; Edward W. Reay, Idaho School; Joseph Youngs, California School, Berkeley; John M. Wal-

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on eflace, chairman, Florida School, was appointed by Dr. Richard G.

Brill, president of the convention, to study:

1. The possibilities of including as members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf those men and women serving as houseparents; and

2. That every effort be made to raise the standards and qualifica-

ventions.

Most of the work of this committee has been done by mail. Only two members are present at this convention, but the committee makes the following recommendations:

1. That further study be made of these two matters, with further consideration being given to include houseparents as associate mem-

bers of the convention.

2. That every effort be made to raise the standards and qualifica-

tions of all houseparents in preparation for certification:

3. The committee does feel that workshops for houseparents would be desirable if they could be worked out within the program framework of future conventions.

Dr. Brill. Thank you, Mr. Wallace. I take the form of the report to be a committee report, and does not necessitate a motion, and the Chair will accept the report for publication.

I would like to call on Mr. Farman, as the chairman of the reso-

lutions committee, to give his report of that committee.

REPORT OF RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

RESOLUTION NO. 1

Being mindful of the unlimited time and endless effort required to produce

such an excellent convention program, be it

Resolved, That the sincere appreciation of those attending this convention be conveyed through this resolution to Mr. and Mrs. Marvin Clatterbuck and the staff of the Oregon State School for the Deaf, for their gracious hospitality and untiring efforts in providing for the comfort of the members of the convention and for the acts of hospitality that have been extended;

That the convention thank the board of control of the Oregon State School

for the Deaf for making the excellent facilities of the school available;

That we express our appreciation to Dr. Richard G. Brill, president of the convention, and to Mr. Roy M. Stelle, vice president, and to the other officers and to the directors for arranging a most interesting and challenging program, and to Mr. Olaf Tollefson for his services in printing materials for this convention;

That we thank the section leaders and their coworkers for the splendid manner in which they met the challenge of organizing the programs for their workshops; That we thank the many interpreters for their faithful work in making it possible for the deaf to enjoy the programs and participate in the workshops.

Mr. Farman. Mr. President, I move that the resolution just read be adopted.

Dr. Brill. Is there a second to the motion? Mrs. Foster seconds. All those in favor please indicate by raising your right hand. Opposed. It is so ordered.

Mr. FARMAN. The following resolution is submitted to the conven-

tion by a workshop group in the vocational section.

RESOLUTION NO. 2

Whereas it is a practice in some schools for the deaf to award automatically, without regard to vocational skill, vocational certificates when academic requirements cannot be met; and

Whereas some schools for the deaf do not have a program of vocational certification; and

Whereas it is the general feeling that the vocational certificate, among various

reasons, can be of use in securing employment: Therefore be it

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Resolved, That all schools for the deaf affiliated with the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf endeavor to establish a uniform system of vocational certification whereby only those students successfully meeting the vocational requirements of their respective schools be awarded vocational certificates, and that those students failing to meet the requirements be awarded a certificate of attendance.

Mr. Farman. Mr. President, I move that the resolution just read be adopted.

Dr. Brill. Is there a second? Mr. Lane seconds the motion. All in favor indicate by raising the right hand. Those opposed. I will note that the resolution passed, but not unanimously.

RESOLUTION NO. 3

Because of the interest in religious work for the deaf, and the efforts put into religious education programs in schools for the deaf: Be it

Resolved, That a section be added to the program of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf devoted to religious work for the deaf.

Mr. Farman. Mr. President, I move that this resolution be adopted. Dr. Brill. Is there a second to the motion? Mrs. Kinsolver seconds. If the Chair may interpret the constitution, I would like to call to your attention the constitution as it now stands has avoided naming specific sections which must be held by the organization. This was done because sections had been added and added, and it had become mandatory, we have 17 different sections. We saw fit 2 years ago to eliminate all of those by name and leave it to the judgment of the program chairman and his committee to formulate the program. I would thus interpret this resolution to be an acceptable resolution as a business matter, and to go in the record, but it will not constitute an amendment to the constitution. All those in favor of the motion, please indicate by raising the right hand. Those opposed. The resolution is adopted.

RESOLUTION NO. 4

Resolved, That the convention urges the Post Office Department of the United States to issue a commemorative stamp in honor of Edward Miner Gallaudet on the occasion of the centennial of Gallaudet College in 1964.

Mr. Farman. Mr. President, I move that this resolution be adopted. Dr. Brill. Is there a second to the resolution? Mr. Grace seconds. All in favor. Opposed. It is so ordered.

RESOLUTION NO. 5

Whereas the National Science Foundation and other Government agencies have set up institutes for the improvement of science and mathematics teaching, and deaf teachers of the deaf (etc.) and have not been able to participate fully in such programs; be it

Resolved, That the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf urge the National Science Foundation, and other agencies involved, to make provisions for a special summer institute for teachers of science and mathematics in

schools for the deaf.

Mr. Farman. Mr. President, I move that the resolution just read be adopted.

Dr. Brill. Is there a second? Mr. Wiltse seconds. All in favor will raise the right hand. Opposed. It is so ordered.

RESOLUTION NO. 6

Whereas captioned films are now made available to the deaf of America through the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; and

Whereas such films are proving themselves extremely useful in the education

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and advancement of the deaf; and

Whereas the supply of such films is far too small to meet the cultural and educational needs of deaf children, youth, and adults of these United States:

Now, therefore, be it

Resolved, by the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, in convention assembled, That the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare be respectfully urged and requested to effect an immediate expansion of its program of captioned films for the deaf in all phases to the end that the deaf may share fully in the beneficial use and enjoyment of this significant means of communication; and be it further

Resolved, That copies of this resolution shall be forwarded immediately to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare; to the Committee on Education and Labor in the House of Representatives, and to the Commissioner, U.S.

Office of Education.

Mr. Farman. Mr. President, I move this resolution be adopted. Dr. Brill. Is there a second to the resolution? It is seconded by Mr. Grace. All in favor will indicate by raising the right hand. Opposed. The resolution is adopted.

RESOLUTION NO. 7

Whereas large numbers of deaf children in the United States are suffering irreparable loss due to the extreme shortage of trained teachers of the deaf, and

Whereas the Senate of the United States has enacted S. 336, a bill

to ameliorate the situation of teacher shortage, and

Whereas the House of Representatives of the Congress has failed to take action upon corresponding legislation now before that body;

Now, therefore, lest deaf children now in school and those yet unborn be further crippled and handicapped through denial of their American birthright of a full and adequate education, be it

Resolved, That the House of Representatives of the 87th Congress be, and hereby is, strongly urged to take immediate and affirmative action upon pending legislation for the support of training teachers of the deaf; and be it further

Resolved, That this memorial shall be sent to the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives; to the President of the United States; the U.S. Office of Education, and Representative Edith Green.

Mr. FARMAN. Mr. President, I move this resolution be adopted.

Dr. Brill. The motion is seconded. All those in favor indicate by raising their right hand. Opposed. It is so ordered. Thank you, Mr. Farman, and the members of your resolutions committee.

I have a matter which I do not think takes action on the part of this convention, but I believe it should be reported, and I think it is appropriate here adjacent to the report of the resolutions committee. Recently, there was held a workshop on community development through organizations of and for the deaf. This workshop was held April 24 to 26 in the State of Virginia. It was under the auspices of Gallaudet College and, I believe, the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation. Nearly everyone attending that workshop was a deaf person, and Mr. Alan Crammatte, who was the coordinator of that workshop,

forwarded the resolutions to me, with special marking of two, which would be of concern to this organization. Therefore, I will read those two resolutions to you.

RESOLUTION—INSTRUCTION IN CIVIC RESPONSIBILITIES

The conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, and the Alexander Graham Bell Association, are informed that it is recommended that the schools for the deaf include in their curriculums a course on civic responsibility of the deaf, with particular emphasis on their duties and obligations to the organizations of the deaf.

RESOLUTION-ROLE OF THE PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf and the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and the Council on Education of the Deaf are to be informed that the adult deaf endorse the concept of developing social services for the deaf as brought out by this workshop and that their cooperation is desired in developing a better understanding of our mutual problems, needs, and aspirations.

(There was a question from the floor, person not identified, as to whether there was to be a vote on the two resolutions just read.)

Dr. Brill. It is my interpretation it is not necessary for us to vote on these two resolutions; that these are for our information. The Chair so rules.

I will now call on Mr. Lloyd Parks of the Kansas school, who is

chairman of our nominating committee, to present his report.

Mr. Parks. Mr. President, and members of the convention: The nominating committee, composed of Miss Margaret S. Kent, Maryland School for the Deaf; Mr. Arthur S. Myklebust, superintendent, South Dakota School for the Deaf; Mrs. Catherine Ramger, California School for the Deaf, Berkeley; Mr. Lewis B. Wahl, principal, Gallaudet Day School for the Deaf, St. Louis, Mo.; and Mr. Lloyd R. Parks, principal, Kansas School for the Deaf, is pleased to present the following nominations for officers of the convention of the American Instructors of the Deaf for these 2 ensuing years; for president, Mr. Roy M. Stelle, Colorado School for the Deaf and Blind; for first vice president, Mr. Lloyd Ambrosen, Maryland School for the Deaf; for second vice president, Mr. Marvin Clatterbuck, Oregon School for the Deaf; for secretary, Mr. John Grace, Texas School for the Deaf; for treasurer, Mr. Thomas Dillon, New Mexico School for the Deaf. These people have been contacted and they have consented to serve if elected.

Mr. President, I move the election of these officers.

Dr. Brill. The Chair will recognize any further nominations from the floor. I hear no further nominations from the floor.

Dr. McClure. Mr. President, I second the motion, and move that

the nominations be closed.

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Dr. Brill. You have heard the motion and the second. All those in favor of this motion and this slate of officers will please indicate by raising the right hand. All those opposed. I declare this slate unanimously elected.

Mr. Parks. Your nominating committee is pleased to present the following nominees as directors for these 2 ensuing years: Mr. M. S. Blanchard, Mackay School for the Deaf, Montreal; Mr. W. T. Griffing, Oklahoma School for the Deaf; Mr. Nathan P. Harris, Horace

Mann School for the Deaf, Roxbury, Mass. These people have been contacted and they have consented to serve if elected.

Mr. President, I move the election of these directors.

Dr. Brill. You have heard the slate as nominated. I will call for any further nominations from the floor. I hear no further nominations, I would call for a second to the motion.

Mr. Huff. I move the nominations cease, and that we cast the unan-

imous ballot for the directors nominated.

Dr. Brill. All those in favor will indicate by raising the right hand. Opposed. That slate of directors is declared elected unanimously. Thank you, Mr. Parks, and thanks to your hard working committee.

Now, we come to the interesting time when we would entertain invitations for the convention in 1963. I don't know whether the gentleman that was going to invite us can use his voice yet or not. It appears to me that Dr. Leonard Elstad is making his way forward.

Dr. Elstad. This noon I gave a talk at Rotary. I was introduced by your superintendent here, Mr. Clatterbuck. I said about three words and I couldn't be understood, so I invited Dr. McClure to speak for me while I signed. Now, I have to ask my friend to help me

again.

Our college, in Europe, invited this World Conference of the Deaf to meet on our campus. All were very happy to accept this invitation from that time on. Three groups were joined together to make one group titled "The Council of Education for the Deaf," and that group really invited formally that world conference meeting, so we are part of that group, so I think we must have your acceptance of our part of that invitation, so I hope that you will be a part of that invitation. If not, you will have to have a rump meeting some other place.

Dr. Brill. I can only interject here, this is probably the only time you will have this man quiet. I would entertain a motion from the floor that the American Instructors of the Deaf accept the invitation of the president of Gallaudet College, to hold its meeting in 1963 as a cohost to the International Congress on Education of the Deaf, to be held at Gallaudet College. Mr. Wallace so moved, and Mr. Schunhoff seconds. All those in favor of the motion please indicate by raising

the right hand. Those opposed. It is so ordered.

I would now entertain invitations for this organization's meeting to be held in 1965. I recognize Mr. Bruce Siders of the Michigan School

for the Deaf.

Mr. Siders. The Michigan School would like to have the convention consider the possibility of having their meeting in Flint, Mich., in 1965. Whereas, our campus cannot compete with the beauty of this one in Oregon, I believe, between the city of Flint and the Michigan School for the Deaf, we can provide adequate facilities for the convention.

Dr. Brill. Is there anyone else who would care to extend an invitation to this organization for its meeting in 1965. I would entertain a motion in regard to the invitation from Michigan.

Mr. Galloway. I move we accept the invitation.

Dr. Brill. Do we have a second. Mr. Roth seconds. All those in favor will indicate by raising the right hand. Opposed. It is so ordered. In 2 years we will expect to see you in Washington, and in 4 years we will expect to see you in Michigan. The meeting in Washington is to be the last week in June in 1963.

The officers you have elected today actually take office at the conclusion of your convention here in Salem. However, symbolically I am very happy to turn this gavel over to your new president, Mr. Roy Stelle, and express my thanks to him again for the fine convention program he prepared, and I know he will be a fine president of this or-

ganization for the next 2 years.

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Mr. Stelle. Thank you very much. It has been a pleasure to have had a part in this convention, and to work with Dr. Brill, Mr. Clatterbuck, and the various section leaders. It's only through the good work of the section leaders that we have been able to have the fine convention we had. I want to compliment Dr. Brill for the fine work and leadership that he has provided during the past 2 years, and I want to thank you, the members of the convention, for the confidence that you have placed in me, and it is with humility that I accept this position, and I hope that I can only do half as well the next 2 years.

Dr. Brill. The business meeting is now adjourned.

Actions by the Standing Executive Committee of the American Instructors of the Deaf July, 4, 1959–June 30, 1961

(RICHARD C. BRILL, president)

The following motion was passed unanimously by written ballot on August 10, 1959:

I approve the appropriation of \$100 from CAID funds for postage for distribution of brochure on teacher training edited by Powrie Doctor.

The following motion was passed by written ballot by a vote of 7 to 2 on August 23, 1959:

I am in favor of a \$100 appropriation from CAID funds to the Council of National Organizations on Children and Youth for the White House Conference.

The following motion was passed unanimously by written ballot on January 6, 1960:

I approve the proposed expenditures for representation at a meeting in Washington in January 1960 and at the White House Conference in March 1960 as described in R. G. Brill's memo of December 2, 1959.

(a) The January meeting was the exploratory meeting which resulted in the eventual establishment of the CED with the American Instructors of the Deaf being represented by R. G. Brill, Roy M. Stelle, and Lloyd A. Ambrosen. The total expenses were \$550.92.

(b) The expenses for the president to attend the White House Conference were \$150.79.

A memorandum from President Richard G. Brill to all members of the standing executive committee dated January 26, 1960, reported on the meeting to form a Council on Education of the Deaf held at the Statler-Hilton Hotel in Washington, January 20, 1960. This memo included the following paragraph:

I would like action from our executive board on this report. Favorable action will authorize me to appoint a committee of three others and myself to serve on a steering committee to write a constitution. Favorable action would also authorize a contribution of \$200 (to be matched by \$200 from each of the other two organizations) for the discretionary use of the steering committee.

The committee appointed was composed of Richard G. Brill, president; Lloyd A. Ambrosen, David Mudgett, and Roy M. Stelle.

The following motions were unanimously approved by written ballot on January 26, 1960:

1. In regard to the American Instructors of the Deaf appointing members of a steering committee to meet with representatives of the A. G. Bell Association and the Conference of Executives to write a constitution in conformity with the official minutes of a meeting held at the Statler-Hilton Hotel, January 20, 1960.

Approved unanimously.

2. In regard to the American Instructors of the Deaf jointly with the Conference of Executives bestowing the first teacher's certificate on Dr. George McClure.

Approved unanimously.

At the board meeting, Wednesday, April 6, 1960, at Hotel Pick-Georgian, Evanston, Ill., the following members were present: Brill, Stelle, Tillinghast, Abernathy, Ambrosen, Hoffmeyer.

The following were not present: Ryan, Dillon, Leard.

The following were invited guests: Powrie Doctor, Marvin Clatterbuck.

The following actions were all passed unanimously:

Stelle moved, Tillinghast seconded, that funds not to exceed \$1,200 be made available to Powrie Doctor for the purchase of an Addressograph and plates, and for the cost of typing stencil plates for schools and all teachers listed in the Annals.

Tillinghast moved, Abernathy seconded, that the American Instructors of the Deaf ratify the constitution of the Council on Edu-

cation of the Deaf and become a founding member.

Hoffmeyer moved, Abernathy seconded, that the executive board concurs in the appointment of the section leaders for the 1961 meeting of the convention in Oregon.

Abernathy moved, Hoffmeyer seconded, that the registration fee

at the meeting of the convention in Oregon will be \$2.

Tillinghast moved, Hoffmeyer seconded, that the treasurer advance \$500 to the superintendent of the Oregon School for the Deaf to be used as a revolving fund for 1961 convention expenses.

Ambrosen moved, Tillinghast seconded, that the board authorize the convention to pay the expenses of Brill, Stelle, and Dillon to Ore-

gon for the purpose of planning the 1961 convention.

Appointment of the following committees was approved:

House Parents Committee (in accordance with Res. 3, p. 238 Colorado convention proceedings requesting a study be made of possible membership for house parents):

Chairman John Wallace, superintendent, Florida School.

Joe Youngs, dean, California School, Berkeley.

Elizabeth Benson, dean of women, Gallaudet College.

Mrs. Doris Orman, teacher, Illinois School. Edward Reay, superintendent, Idaho School.

Nominating committee:

Chairman Lloyd Parks, principal, Kansas School. Miss Margaret Kent, head teacher, Maryland School.

Mrs. Catherine M. Ramger, teacher, California School, Berkeley.

Lewis Wahl, principal, Gallaudet Day School, St. Louis. Arthur Myklebust, superintendent, South Dakota School.

The following motion was passed by a mail vote of 6 to 3 on July 25, 1960:

I approve the expenditure of funds not to exceed \$55 to pay the postage on parent packets.

The following motion was passed by a mail vote of 8 to 1 on July 25, 1960:

I approve the expenditure of funds not to exceed 220 for making stencils for the list of names of teachers in the Annals.

The following motion was approved unanimously by a mail vote on a ballot dated September 8, 1960:

I am in favor of approving a maximum expenditure of \$600 for the three appointed delegates and the president to attend the organizational meeting of the Council on Education of the Deaf.

The following motion was passed unanimously by a mail ballot dated March 3, 1961:

A salary of \$250 for the editor of the proceedings, for the Oregon meeting of the convention is approved.

The following motion was passed unanimously by a mail ballot dated March 3, 1961:

An annual salary of \$250, effective July 1, 1961, for the treasurer of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf is approved.

At a special meeting of the standing executive committee held at the Oregon State School for the Deaf in Salem, Oreg., on June 27, 1961, a motion was made by Abernathy, seconded by Leard and passed unanimously that the treasurer, Thomas Dillon, be reimbursed \$200 for travel expenses to the Oregon convention.

At a special meeting of the standing executive committee held at the Oregon State School for the Deaf on June 29, 1961, with Tillinghast, Dillon, Leard, Brill, Ambrosen, Stelle, and Hoffmeyer present and Powrie Doctor as an invited guest, the financing of the International Congress on Education of the Deaf was discussed. Stelle moved that the American Instructors of the Deaf advance \$1,000, which may be reimbursed if the budget permits, to Powrie Doctor, executive secretary of ICED for operating expenses preliminary to the adoption of a budget, but to be included as income in the total budget. Seconded by Ambrosen. Passed unanimously.

THURSDAY, JUNE 29, 1961

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Main Building—Section Leader: Paul E. McLelland, principal Virginia School, Staunton. 9-9:45~a.m.

General session.

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Speaker: Dr. George B. Cox, Department of Industrial Education, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oreg.

Interpreters: Charles B. Grow, Ben Hoffmeyer.

75387-62-22

10-11:45 a.m.

Morning session of vocational education workshops. Workshop I—Continue from Tuesday. Workshop II—Continue from Tuesday.

Workshop II—Continue from Tuesday. Workshop IV—Vocational curricula, instruction.

Speaker-consultant: Dr. George B. Cox. Workshop chairmen:

Mr. Howard H. Rahmlow:

Recorder: Miss Joanne Meek. Interpreter: Marshall Hester.

Mr. Thomas Fishler:

Recorder: Mr. Earl Rogerson. Interpreter: Charles Grow.

Mr. John M. Fessant:

Recorder: Mr. L. Dwight Rafferty. Interpreter: Hugo Schunhoff.

Mr. Roy K. Patton:

Interpreter: Ben Hoffmeyer.

1:15-2:45 p.m.

Afternoon session of workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops. Workshop III—Homemaking.

SESSION III

9 a.m.

General session.

9:30 a.m.

New directions for improved teaching of nutrition and meal planning.

Presiding: Mrs. Clarice Goldsmith, Oregon. Recorder: Mrs. Mabel Armstrong, Washington.

Hostess: Miss Paula Ball, South Dakota.

"Nutrition and meal planning": Mrs. Ruth N. Klippstein, nutrition specialistextension service, Oregon State University.

10:45 a.m.

Is there a need for extension classes for the deaf homemaker?

11:15 a.m.

Teaching aids: Miss Patricia Erpelding, home economist, Oregon Dairy. Council.

12:15 p.m.

Lunch and business meeting.
Presiding: Mrs. Bernice Owens.
Recorder: Mrs. Viola McDowell.
Hostess: Miss Nelly Nerhus.

Interpreter: Louis Boley. Report of constitution and bylaws committee.

Election of officers.

1:30 p.m.

Evaluation of homemaking workshop—"Setting Our Sights for the Sixties."

3-3:45 p.m.

Summary of all workshop reports for presentation to the vocational general session.

(Note.—Several of the above-listed workshops are combined with and reported in the proceedings for Tuesday. Also, workshop III as shown herein is an additional workshop to this section.)

WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I-Curricula and Instruction

(Leader: John M. Fessant, Oregon School, Salem) (Recorder: Hubertine Mog, New Mexico School, Sante Fe)

The first topic of discussion was what courses of study do we use for the slow learners. No one has different courses of study. The program must remain flexible to suit the needs of the individual child.

A request was made for a set of goals to be established by those who are experienced in teaching the slow learner. These would show what they can do and what they should not be expected to do. Some objection was raised as to setting down in black and white. It was felt that flexibility should be maintained; however, it was concluded that a set of goals would help us move ahead.

In answering the question about written work for slow learners, it was discovered that some schools use graphs to show the child's ability

in interpreting instructions orally, verbally, and written.

The question was raised as to what kind of shopwork the people in the less industrialized States have to offer. In the agricultural States many of the young men return to the farms or become truckdrivers.

The next point of discussion centered around the length of time required for training in a particular field. Again, it was felt that flexibility must be maintained because of the difference in children. At Riverside, Calif., the child is required in the woodworking shop to complete 500 hours on several different machines. This usually covers a period of 4 years of the advanced department.

A work card is kept by each child showing the number of hours he

has put in on a particular machine.

Another school has each boy check in and out. This is done in order to teach trade practices. Another important point brought out is that the children should not be allowed to stand around and talk or to waste time. It appears that about one-third of the students remain with their jobs while the other two-thirds are less diligent in

carrying out a task.

A question was raised as to the basic training needed by deaf students. It was felt that by learning to operate a number of different machines in the vocational program of a school, they will be much better prepared to go out and adapt themselves to almost any kind of machine. For safety's sake, someone suggested that they felt it wise to allow a young person to always maintain a feeling of respect for machines.

Another question raised was, "How do we teach basic honesty?"
This is a quality very important in holding any job, no matter how
well trained a student may be. We must set a good example as teachers

by not standing around and visiting with other teachers or visitors or

taking unwarranted time for coffee breaks.

Considerable time was spent in discussing job placement. It was felt that the vocational departments of our schools cannot do the entire job, therefore, we should make every effort to set up good public relations with employment agencies and leaders in industry so that it will become easier to place our young people. It is also very important to work with vocational rehabilitation and use their facilities which are already established to help the handicapped. In Riverside the supervising teacher of the vocational department spends about 1 day a week working directly with vocational rehabilitation, laying the groundwork for possible employment of the forthcoming graduation class. He also works with employment agencies in the spring, explaining the abilities and handicaps of particular students from the area in question. Parents are also advised of the employment agency they can contact in their area, as well as the person to see at the vocational rehabilitation office nearest them in order to help their child find employment.

Should we use more books in our vocational teaching? Most books are far too difficult for the deaf child, therefore, it is up to the teacher to select the material to be presented from these books. The question arose as to whether it would be feasible to write books just for the use of the deaf. The consensus seemed to be that this would be far too great a task. Some schools are having to adopt a text because they are trying to have their schools certified by the State, and this is one

requirement.

Mr. Rahmlow explained a helpful teaching device. It consists of two 17-inch plywood pieces put together with a bolt in the center. At the top is a notch through which pictures and words can be seen and used for study. Between these two pieces can be inserted an 18-inch piece of paper with the information to be learned. A hinge on the back allows it to be set up when in use.

Grading systems were discussed. It seems that many States score the students on several different points, such as work habits, coopera-

tion, initiative, and skill. Others give only one grade.

WORKSHOP II-HOMEMAKING

(Leader: Mrs. Clarice Goldsmith, Oregon School, Salem)

(Recorder: Mrs. Mabel Armstrong, Washington School, Vancouver)

(Consultant: Mrs. Ruth Klippstein, nutrition specialist, extension service, Oregon State University)

(Consultant: Miss Patricia Erpelding, home economist, Oregon Dairy Council)

Mrs, Klippstein described ways in which nutrition can best be taught to teenagers. It is difficult for the teenager to realize that correct nutrition will affect later health. One good way to reach the teenager is to relate the importance of nutrition to physical appearance. Emphasis should be placed on foods which are high in calcium, iron, and vitamin C.

Sources of information on nutrition:

State colleges.
 College presses.

3. Paperbacks.

4. Cookbooks.

5. National Dairy Council.6. 1959 Foods Year Book.

Miss Erpelding demonstrated the use of educational aids available from the National Dairy Council:

1. Simplified charts for nutrition.

2. Food models.

3. Use of rats to demonstrate nutrition in the classroom.

4. Comparison charts.

5. Chart and food models, "It's Breakfast Time Around the World."

Workshop III—Offset Lithography

(Leader: Tom Fishler, California School)
(Recorder: Earl Rogerson)

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Teacher training:

(a) On the job.(b) College.

(c) Trade school.(d) Trade journals.

(e) Supply company demonstrations.

2. Production load (how to divide between departments).

3. Job placement: (a) percentage that follow trade.

4. Type and brand of equipment.

5. Convincing administration of pressing need for establishing offset department.

Teacher training

Strong feeling that on-the-job training is essential. College programs are not so good. Trade schools have better programs than colleges for this line of work. Trade journals essential to teachers, helping them keep up to date on changing trends in the trade. Supply company demonstrations are dependent upon locality.

Production load

A certain amount of production is necessary to justify the cost of equipment and is a useful means of instruction; however, the teacher should have sufficient notice (of 10 days) so that he can work production into the class schedule.

Job placement

Job placement is fairly good. Placement should be in hands of principal or supervising teacher. Teachers should also keep eyes open through contacts with salesmen and company representatives.

Type and brand of equipment

It seems the factors used to determine the type and brand of equipment are "how much money you have" and the type of machines used in the general area of the school. Safety factors are also to be considered.

Convincing administration of pressing need for establishing offset department

It is felt in some places there is no need for offset, while in others

the administration favors it but the State does not.

Mr. Kenneth Burdett moved that the next convention of the CAID have an actual workshop demonstration, and a question and answer forum, in offset lithography, to be included as a part of the vocational section program. Seconded by Mr. Hinnaut, and passed unanimously.

The following-named committee was appointed to draft a resolu-

tion to be presented at the business meeting of the convention:

Mr. Earl L. Rogerson, Arizona School, Tucson. Mr. Thomas Fishler, California School, Riverside.

Mr. Dwight Rafferty, North Dakota School, Devils Lake.

Mr. Olaf Tollefson, Oregon School, Salem.

Mr. Doran Stoltenberg, Washington School, Vancouver.

(See Resolution No. 2 in business session of these proceedings.)

THURSDAY, JUNE 29, 1961

SOCIAL STUDIES

9-9:45 a.m.

Primary building—Section leader: Kendall D. Litchfield, principal, New York School, White Plains.

Papers: Mr. Jack Staehle, supervising teacher, and Miss Betty Phillips, teacher, New York School.

Interpreter: Lloyd Ambrosen.

10-11:45 a.m.

Morning session of workshops.

A. Intermediate level:

Betty Phillips, New York School. Interpreter: Lloyd Ambrosen. Margaret Atwood, New Mexico School.

Interpreter: Robert Lennan. B. Advanced levels:

Elliott H. Igleheart, Washington School. Interpreter: Edward Reay. Jack Staehle, New York School. Interpreter: Art Yates. Virginia Heidinger, New York School.

1:15-2:45 p.m.

Afternoon session of workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

A LOOK AT THE SCOPE OF SOCIAL STUDIES

(BETTY PHILLIPS, New York School, White Plains)

Social studies is the all-inclusive study of man and his efforts to know himself within his predetermined natural bounds, and the framework of the society in which he lives. The scope of social studies is therefore broad, with depth emerging from the systematic and orderly consideration of the contributing areas; namely, geography, history, political science, economics, sociology, and anthropology. These contributing areas are generally referred to as disciplines study, man seeking knowledge and information about himself. Each of these

six areas is a discipline incorporating a distant body of knowledge, demanding special skills for thorough understanding, evaluation, and

application.

Although social studies incorporates these areas with its unique, inherent difficulties, this unified study of man must also follow the process of social living. Today, as a result of our rapidly changing civilization, three disciplines: Political science, economics, and sociology have been catapulted into not only a state of flux, but also into a state of dynamism. For proper perspective, it must be remembered that history, geography, and anthropology are also altered, reaffirmed, or redefined in compliance with the course and interpretation of the

prevailing society.

Let us examine some of the implications for the classroom teacher with this broader concept of social studies. The teacher needs to recognize that social studies is flexible and that the curriculum must not enforce rigidity or solidify its content. Furthermore, its flexibility is in two dimensions. First, this dynamic area of the curriculum demands that a teacher be a student of current events, since to teach social studies adequately, he must be able to interweave the past with the present. Secondly, the teacher must modify the curriculum to insure its accuracy and compatibility with world events. Also, the curriculum should be consistent with the daily needs of the pupils, being structured in such a manner as to provide a base for their future judgments, decisions, and evaluations so that our students can become the knowledgeable participants of the next generation's society.

The incorporation of the six disciplines into the social studies field does not indicate that each should be introduced into the curriculum at the same level, nor that each should be considered for the same length of time. Prof. Dwyane Huebner of Teachers College, Columbia University, has suggested the following time sequence for the initial inclusion of a discipline's most basic ideas into the social studies

curriculum:

1. Economics in the first grade.

2. Geography in the second or third grade.

3. History at a fourth grade level.

4. Sociology and political science in either the fifth or sixth grade.

5. Anthropology at the seventh grade level.

With each of these disciplines we must strive to help children develop conceptual thinking which is, of necessity, dependent on language. Each of these areas has terms and concepts peculiar to it, and we must endeavor to teach these at a level of understanding above that of mere verbalization. Each time a new discipline's ideas are to be considered, we need available a wide variety of information which is factual, ancedotal, and biographical. By making presentations as concrete, as descriptive, as full of detail, and as concerned with people as we possibly can, we may help our children begin to clarify their jumbled thoughts about terms. Our immediate communities usually offer a wealth of information which is available for real study. When children understand concepts and terms in relation to their own community, then the beginning of true conceptual thought is possible. With the consideration of unfamiliar commun-

ities, they can compare, readjust, and refine their concepts and

thoughts.

Our children need to consider man within the natural bounds and social framework of our society. We must help them develop ways of thinking about our society which encompass it in its entirety. If we present a social studies program with a static, narrow scope, we limit and curtail their insights and contacts with the world around them. To facilitate and stimulate our children's contacts, relationships, and insights into our complex modern society we must present a social studies program with broad, flexible scope.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I—Intermediate Level, Social Studies

(Leader: Betty Phillips, New York School, White Plains) (Recorder: Virginia Heidinger, New York School, White Plains)

The meeting began with a discussion of current events in the social

studies program. Several ideas were suggested:

1. Using an opaque projector to flash news articles on a screen. This is used also as a language and reading lesson. The children are instructed that a good news article answers five questions, who, what, when, where, and why. Each article is evaluated by the children as to whether it answers these questions.

2. A news reporter can be appointed in every room. The reporter brings in news articles and pictures every day, and posts them on a

bulletin board reserved for news.

3. Time, Look, and Life magazines can be brought in every week by the teacher and kept in the room. This was found valuable in teaching children to skim as well as to read for context.

4. News Trails, a publication of Scholastic magazine for grade schools was used in one school. The language and subject matter was

found difficult for children at the intermediate level.

It was asked what texts were used. The Ginn series were used in some schools. Other schools chose texts from State-approved lists. Cross Country from the Scott Foresman series was felt to be very interesting to the children, and useful with slow learners. This book describes the trip of a family across the United States from the starting point, Los Angeles. Kodachrome transparencies taken by the teacher of places described in the book were used. This text was found to be useful in project work.

A suggested project was that of having the children write to each State to obtain pictures of the capitol and other material on the State. The capitals were located on a large map and a display made of the

materials gathered.

It was agreed that social studies is basically a reading subject, but that it has more scope, can be more concrete, and the topics more interesting to students. Teachers should not fail to make the topics as exciting as possible by gathering sufficient material from outside the textbooks used. Public libraries in the cities can be utilized for research by the students. Learning songs pertinent to the subject was found to add interest and enjoyment.

Workshop II—Advanced Level, Social Studies

(Leader: Elliott Igleheart, Washington School, Vancouver)

(Recorder: Despo Varkados, Washington School, Vancouver)

The leader proposed a comparison of common problems we all

encounter, and how we cope with these problems.

1. Social studies panel—all participants saw a great deal of merit in having social studies panel meetings to discuss common problems and various techniques employed successfully to meet these problems, also current articles and reports. There were numerous contributions to this suggestion and a variety of advantages mentioned.

Preparations, background, groundwork for a new assignment.
 (a) Relating either the teacher or some pupil, if possible, to the

specific area by personal experience.

(b) A wide and varied use of any visual aids available with the condition that the teacher make adequate preparation for the use of such materials.

3. Use of library—reference work, reports, projects. What use do

you make of the library in teaching social studies?

(a) Pupils getting materials from the public and school libraries themselves.

(b) Have the pupils use the encyclopedia during class time to introduce added material for class discussion.

(c) Building models related to areas of high interest, and to stimulate high interest in other areas.

(d) Utilizing picture and map files in the library for student

reference.
(e) Expanding our library facilities by interchanging with other libraries.

(f) Coordinating reports and written library work with the language department.

(g) Coordinating work in the classroom with a good librarian is a terrific asset.

4. Use of visual aids—what do you use for visual impact? Variety of visual aids:

(a) Filmstrips.

(b) Personal collections or guests who have films for illustrated comment on areas of class interest.

(c) Objects, products, artifacts representative of specific areas

of interest.

(d) Projects such as models illustrating city planning, a factory, an oilfield, a mine shaft, a railroad yard, a farm, a native village, etc.

(e) Utilizing true life experiences like building an igloo during

a snowfall, churning butter in class, cooking corn pone.

(f) Opaque projector used for class drills on reading maps, charts, and graphs.

(g) Utilize all available sources of film material.

(h) Pictures and display material from airlines, ship companies, etc.

5. Variety in vocabulary and question work—vocabulary:

(a) Teacher picks out unfamiliar vocabulary words and explains context definitions.

(b) Use of glossary often more helpful than the use of the

dictionary because optional connotations are eliminated.

(c) Retrospective considerations of terminology which might

attract student attention.

(d) Pick out the vocabulary and have the pupils look them up

under supervision.

(e) Copy a sentence and have the pupils guess the meaning

(e) Copy a sentence and have the pupils guess the meaning from reference to context.

(f) Use of the dictionary is not always effective, but closely supervised dictionary work in class very effective.

(g) Use categorized word lists for drills to broaden comprehension in specific areas such as; name foods, minerals, occupations, etc.

(h) Summary of lessons written by a teacher adding vocabulary on the page opposite the lesson material. The participants expressed a strong desire to see texts printed with a glossary of terms adjoining each page of the text. This would be especially useful to the slow learner.

 Vocabulary notebooks for social studies with adequate explanation by the teacher.

What are some ways to add a little variety to our question work?

(a) Simple questions for slow pupils.

(b) Elliptical questions.

(c) Question work done in class on the blackboard occasionally.

(d) Pop quizzes on class time.(e) Written open book quiz.

(f) Unwritten question and answer period in class.

(g) Single questions written on small pieces of paper and passed out to individuals for board work.

(h) Questions prepared by pupils.6. Utilizing the current events board.

(a) It is important to pick out a few items of special interest to the class to explain at the beginning of each period.

(b) Mount clippings from newspapers and magazines either to be passed around or to be put on the bulletin board.

(c) Make use of Current Events magazine.

(d) Change news clippings so they do not become stale.

(e) Make these things as attractive to the pupils as possible. (f) There are many ways to use current events. We feel there is great value in encouraging the use of a current events board in our social studies program.

CONCLUSION

Though necessary emphasis on reading and language too often leads us to soft pedal the social studies program, most of the techniques and procedures effective in planning a stimulating literature lesson may be just as effectively applied in planning a social studies lesson, with ideas the main objective.

THURSDAY, JUNE 29, 1961

MATHEMATICS

Primary building—section leader: F. Eugene Thomure, principal, South Dakota School, Sioux Falls.

9-9:45 a.m.

Keynote speaker: Leon Auerbach, professor, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.

Interpreters: Melvin H. Brasel, Harvey T. Christian.

10-11:45 a.m.

Morning session of workshops.

Workshops:

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A. Upper primary:

Leader: Mr. Claude Gulbranson, South Dakota School. Interpreter: Harvey T. Christian.

B. Intermediate:

Leader: Mr. Barry L. Griffing, Riverside, Calif.

Interpreter: Lloyd Graunke.

C. Advanced (Junior high school and above, no algebra). Leader: Mr. Leo Jacobs, Barkeley, California School; Mr. David

Mudgett, Illinois School. Interpreter: Mrs. Tommy Hall.

D. Slow learners:

Leader: Mr. Keith F. Lange, Oregon School.

Interpreter: Floyd McDowell.

E. Algebra:

Leaders: Mr. Thomas Ulmer, Oregon School; Mr. Mervin D. Garretson, Montana School.

Interpreter: Mrs. Mabel Nilson.

1:45-2:15 p.m.

Afternoon session of workshops.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorder formulate report.

3-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

ARE WE SHORTCHANGING OUR DEAF CHILDREN?

(Leon Auerbach, associate professor, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.)

If I were to choose an auxiliary title, I would use this one: "The Sad Story of the Omission of the Teaching of Geometry and Other Secondary School Mathematics in the Schools for the Deaf." This double title, though long-winded, tells the story in brief.

The preamble to the Constitution of the United States reads:

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish the Constitution of the United States of America.

Certainly the promotion "of the general welfare" enjoins the Government to advance public education. Upon the individual State rests the grave responsibility of developing a program of instruction for all its people, including its deaf children.

The objectives of full education as simplified by James Bryant Conant, in his book, "Education in a Divided World" are:

1. Education for citizenship. 2. Education for the good life.

3. Vocational education of which professional education is a

special case.

Let us take a look at the typical public school and compare the situation there to what we find at a typical school for the deaf today. There is a great pressure to teach more mathematics and to teach mathematics earlier. According to an interesting article in the winter issue of the Key Reporter, the "degree of difficulty of much of mathematics is a function of the age in which it is being presented." geometry was difficult for the Greeks to grasp at first. The calculus seemed terribly abtruse for years after it was invented. But plane geometry is now considered elementary; calculus today is one of the usual sophomore or even freshman courses in college. Some of the more advanced subjects in today's mathematics will some day become a part of everyone's ordinary education.

Just to give you an idea of the alleged difficulty of mathematics, let us look at various courses of study in several colleges about 100

At Williams College in 1843, says the article in the Key Reporter,

the offering in mathematics was as follows:

Freshman year: algebra and Euclid, this, of course is what everyone today calls geometry).

Sophomore year: more Euclid, measurements, navigation, survey-

ing, spherical trigonometry, conic sections.

Junior: (mathematics offered for only one-third of the year); astronomy plus the following option: French, Hebrew, or fluxions (Newton's name for his invention, the calculus).

Senior year: no mathematics offered.

At Oberlin College the situation was much the same except that no fluxions were mentioned.

At Princeton, they were enlightened. They called fluxions differential and integral calculus, but they jammed it into half the

The main points are obvious. It took most of the first 2 years of college to learn what is taught in public high schools now. What has happened in those years, and why? All the mathematics that was offered in the mid-19th century during the first 2 years of college has been either pushed down into the high schools, or pushed out of

the curriculum altogether.

The question of why this has happened is even more significant. Mostly one can safely say, because of pressures from various directions: pressures from the scientific world, pressures from the students themselves who want to learn more and learn it faster; and especially, as the graduate schools have come into being and prospered, pressure from above. It is this pressure from above, from the next higher echelon of education that has had the greatest effect. The secondary schools feel pressed by the colleges.

This shift of what was formerly higher mathematics to lower levels has taken place as a result of forces that are stronger than ever today.

What, then, can we expect to see in the public schools in the future? Can we venture to predict further drastic pushing down of more higher mathematics to still lower levels. The handwriting is on the

"blackboard."

Elementary algebra is going into the grammar schools. Algebra has already been taught as an experiment in grades 5, 6, and 7, and not at the expense of traditional arithmetic. The rest of the public high school curriculum will be condensed and accelerated; and certainly in our lifetime, possibly a very few years from now, a full year of so-called college calculus will become the standard high school senior course. The next step, not too far away either, is 2 full years of calculus and allied topics in public high school, so that the young high school graduates will then be able to begin at a point well beyond that to which their forebears at any level could have taken them a hundred years ago.

The college entrance examination board, through its commission on mathematics, has drawn up a program for modernizing secondary school mathematics courses. The chief aim of the commission, according to its executive director, Albert E. Meder, is to give students an appreciation of the true meaning of mathematics and some idea of modern development. Algebra, he pointed out, is no longer a "disconnected mass of memorized tricks but a study of mathematical structure; geometry no longer a body of theorems arranged in a precise

order that can be memorized without understanding."

The college board has the support of most leading mathematicians. About 20 of them met with 20 high school mathematics teachers in the summer of 1958 at Yale, to write outlines of sample textbooks based partly on the commission's recommendations.

This commission made a point of the fact that the student is to be ready or almost ready for calculus at the end of grade 11. The com-

missioners feel so strongly about this that they say:

"Colleges have a heavy responsibility laid upon them by the commission. They must revise their freshman courses so that the freshmen who enter college having completed $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 4 years of the commission's program, are placed in a substantial calculus course or some other appropriate course of college level. The traditional freshman course will not suffice."

This "traditional freshman course" is what we offer at Gallaudet. It is a full year, 4-hour-a-week course including trigonometry and college algebra (they now call it high school advanced algebra). It is the commission's strong recommendation that high school students

should be ready for calculus at the end of grade 11.

Now let us turn to a typical school for the deaf. The January 1961 issue of American Annals of the Deaf lists 60 out of 68 public residential schools in the United States as having secondary education at least to the 9th grade level, and 48 out of 68 have classes up to and including the 10th grade. However, Morris in his M.A. thesis at Gallaudet about 10 years ago said that in his study of accredited secondary schools for the deaf he found this "constitutes one of the most neglected phases of the education of the deaf. There are very few accredited high schools for the deaf in the country." Dr. Doctor in the January 1950 issue of the Annals specifically asked whether their

high schools are accredited and 11 of the 65 public residential schools responded in the affirmative, while 28 out of 86 public day schools gave their answer as "Yes." This country has made great strides in the education of the deaf, more so than in any other country. However, as Ralph White said in his master's thesis at the University of Texas: "The weakest link in the whole American system has been noted between the elementary school and the collegiate level."

A school for the deaf usually has two curriculums, viz, college preparatory or academic and vocational, as against four in a public high school. The latter has in addition to the above two, general and commercial. All of them call for, among other things, mathematics in various forms. It has been the practice at the college ever since its establishment, to provide an additional year of academic training for many, before they are allowed to enter the freshman year. This is known as the preapratory year (in old days it was called the introductory class) and during this year the "inequalities in past training

are leveled out as much as possible."

I will now refer to an interesting short paper prepared by Richard M. Phillips, dean of students at Gallaudet, as a partial fulfillment of the requirements in his guidance class at the University of Maryland, where he is working toward his doctor's degree. It is entitled "A Survey of Practices in 42 State Schools for the Deaf." One interesting aspect of this paper is that the information for this survey came from the preparatory students (or freshman students if necessary) themselves; at least one from each of the 42 schools; rather than from the administrators who may incline to be visionary and idealistic. According to this survey the typical student attended school for 9½ years and exactly one-half of the schools represented has a special class, i.e., the college preparatory class. The other half, though they do not have "college preparatory classes," do have something akin to academic curriculum in that they give approximately the same training to all of their students whether of college caliber or not.

Mr. Phillips singled out a specific course of special interest to me in this paper, algebra. The survey showed that nearly all of the schools do teach algebra at least to their college-aspiring students. Sixty percent of these schools give 1 year of instruction in algebra while the rest give anywhere from 6 to 15 months. No school, as far as I know, gives a full course of geometry and none in trigonometry. I cannot find if there has really been any extensive research or survey of whether courses in mathematics other than algebra are taught at all in those 68 public residential schools and 86 public day schools. Is geometry taught at all? If so, is it taught as a full 5-day

course? What about trigonometry and solid geometry?

Irving S. Fusfeld, noted in "Higher Education of the Deaf" in March 1945 issue of the Annals, that deaf students though not equal to the general norms in effectiveness of expression in English, history, or literature, excel in mechanics of expression (i.e., grammar) and in mathematics. Eva R. Stunkel of the U.S. Civil Service Commission said in an article written for the Annals in September 1957, that performance of deaf students in Federal service entrance examinations showed above-average ability in nonverbal reasoning, but weakness in tests of a verbal nature. Lewis M. Mayers in his paper at the 1949 teachers' convention in Jacksonville, Ill., did compare scores in the standardized achievement tests among three schools, viz. Arkansas,

Georgia, and Oregon, and the scores showed that they were highest in arithmetical computation. Finally, the candidates for entrance to Gallaudet in the last 10 years have made higher scores in mathematics than in any other subject.

These facts confirm or at least prove to some extent that the deaf students as a whole do fairly well in mathematics and should be able

to continue to advanced mathematics.

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I have on hand a complete course of study in mathematics for grades 7 to 12 inclusively in the District of Columbia public school system. This course of study is very typical and I am sure that I am not far from being correct, when I say that 99 percent of the public schools in the country have the same program. I will now list the courses taught in these grades. For the seventh grade, they have informal geometry arithmetic, measurement, graphical representation. In the eighth grade they have the same courses as in the seventh grade, except that in the last half of the eighth grade they add "First Steps in Algebra." The purpose of this additional course is to stress an appreciation of the importance of symbolism in modern life and the essential part it plays in mathematics. They also may introduce an understanding of ratio and proportion and the ability to use them in solving arithmetical problems.

In the ninth grade the class in mathematics is divided into two groups, namely referring to original definitions, the academic and vocational classes. In the latter group, they give a terminal course, general mathematics. For the academic group they teach a full 5-day-a-week course in elementary algebra for a full school year.

In senior high school the students take 1 full year of plane geometry, also a 5-day-a-week course, usually in the 10th grade. Intermediate algebra, a full-year course, may be taken either concurrently with plane geometry or the following year. Students who intend to go into industry or business take basic mathematics, a terminal course. Those who intend to take one semester each of plane trigonometry and solid geometry must have had intermediate algebra and plane geometry.

I understand that in a typical high school, or at least it is the case in one high school near where I live in Prince Georges County, Md., that approximately one-third of the students in academic group elected to take trigonometry and solid geometry. In the 12th grade a small group of students will take analytical geometry, college algebra (or as explained above, high school advanced algebra), and

a short "glimpse" into calculus.

However, as I have explained before, this picture may change vastly in the not-too-distant future. If this be so, will the gap between these schools and our own schools become ever wider? The typical age of the entering preparatory student at Gallaudet is 19 years, according to the registrar at Gallaudet, as compared to the typical age of a senior in high school and that is 17 years. We have a gap of 2 years. Will this gap remain stationary or will it become wider in the years to come?

Gallaudet College is now a fully accredited college and this status is contingent on, among other things, the courses taught at the college as compared to the changing world. About 5 years ago we moved down the course in analytic geometry from the sophomore year to the freshman year and calculus is now taught in the sophomore year in-

stead of the junior year as before. For the junior and senior years, we offer an assortment of courses which, in my opinion, will need to be changed once in a while, to conform with the demands of our everchanging society. We offer advanced calculus, differential equations, theory of equations, projective geometry, just to name a few. In the past 2 years we added two new courses, viz, "Numerical Mathematical Analysis" and "Programing for High-Speed Digital Computers." As a result of these changes several of our graduates have entered the very new field of computer programing. At the last count, we have eight of them being employed in a very specialized field of computer programing ranging from White Sands Proving Grounds in New Mexico to the National Bureau of Standards in Washington with the grades from GS-7 to GS-13 paying them up to \$10,000 a year.

Is there any reason why, our deaf people cannot keep up with these changing trends? Is there any reason why, our deaf students cannot learn plane geometry in the ninth grade? Is there any reason why they cannot learn trigonometry in the 10th or 11th grade? White wrote in his aforementioned thesis that the ability to read and to write, and to do some simple figuring "can hardly be said to be adequate preparation for life in this competitive world dominated by hearing people" who in turn are ever pushing toward ever higher levels.

Here we have, surely, a case of arrested development of mathematical powers. Since a typical deaf student scores better in mathematics (or computational work and the like) in a standardized test than he does in other subjects the elementary school people usually concentrate on his weak spots. That is an admirable trait, I must say, but does that mean that his progress in mathematics must necessarily grind to a halt or at least slow down? We all agree that an average deaf student does very well in arithmetical operations. Isn't it possible to lead them further on to a more generalized system't Algebra, for example, is nothing but a generalized form of arithmetic. Language difficulties of the deaf are too well known to be discussed here, but they are nonetheless important factors in the progress of teaching advanced mathematics in the schools for the deaf. This topic rates a separate and intensive paper for discussion.

A perfect and up-to-date situation would find a student possessed of a good concept of the course he is to start in. A preparatory student at Gallaudet should have a clear concept of, for the present, what geometry is about, before he starts studying it. Let us take an illustrative case of what I mean by this. Ratio and proportion are two distinct terms; yet, on every occasion, a student would say, when asked, that ratio is the same thing as proportion. If we can impress on them the distinct meanings of these two terms and at the earliest possible time, later difficulties would never occur.

Our schools should more or less follow a course of study like the one used in the District of Columbia public school system. They should have informal geometry, symbolic language, and graphical representation, along with conventional arithmetic in the 7th and 8th grades; elementary algebra in the 9th; plane geometry in the 10th or basic mathematics for those who do not intend to further their education; and finally the optionals in the 11th, like plane trigonometry, intermediate algebra, and solid geometry. In this way, I am sure, they will be able to keep up with the rest of the schools in the country.

For my closing remarks, I would like to quote James Truslow Adams, who wrote in "The Epic of America":

But there has been also the American dream, that dream of a land in which life should be better and richer and fuller for every man, with opportunity for each according to his ability or achievement. * * * If we are to make the dream come true we must all work together, no longer to build bigger, but to build better. There is a time for quantity and a time for quality.

The time for quality in lower educational levels is now.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I-Mathematics, Upper Primary

(Leader: Claude Gulbranson, South Dakota School, Sioux Falls)
(Recorder: Genevieve Tucker, Idaho School, Gooding)

We discussed and were shown the Cal-count rack as visual aid to teach concepts of 1, 10, and 100. We all agreed that visual aids are a must in the teaching of number concepts to primary deaf children.

The group thought that some teachers probably spend too much time on the rote drill of simple computation. We thought that language problems should be promoted at an earlier grade level because

of the language difficulty involved.

In a class of varying abilities, the pupils who were capable should definitely be encouraged and aided to work up to their potential. They need new interests even though they have not mastered fully their previous work, as these children often become bored.

In story problems, dramatization, drawn symbols, and toys of var-

ious sorts can be used very advantageously.

Visual concepts of the story problem should be stressed and restressed to try to eliminate as much as possible the dependency on cue words. It was suggested that many questions and answers be formulated on the same problem which would involve connected language.

Labeling of all items in story problems, including the answer, was thought to be vitally important to the child's acquiring a true mental

concept of the problem.

WORKSHOP II-MATI EMATICS, INTERMEDIATE

(Leader: Mr. Barry Griffing, California School, Riverside)

(Recorder: Mrs. Louise Bars, Los Angeles, secondary classes, deaf and hard of hearing)

The group identified several problems and discussed new approaches in our various schools with the view in mind of a report at the next convention.

1. Are there materials written or made for teaching the deaf?

A project is being completed at Los Angeles State College which should be of great value to all teachers of the deaf. An extensive number of teaching aids for primary grades has been devised. This will be ready for publication in the near future.

A captional film on linear measure, titled "The Ruler Goes to

School" is also being prepared.

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Scott-Forsman newest texts are excellent. Ginn & Co. have texts under revision which include above-average workbooks.

2. What are some techniques for solving story problems?

The language reading approach must precede the mechanical process. The equation approach and dramatization are examples of this method.

There was a marked divergence of opinion concerning the value of cue words. Teachers who believe in using cue words feel that the children gradually dropped their use and that they were not necessary after grade 4.

Wide-range estimates consistently used tend to achieve reasonable answers and to eliminate foolish answers. Sentence answers to a probC.

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lem are preferred, but labeling is acceptable.

3. What are some techniques useful in teaching measures: linear,

liquid, and so forth?

Some measures can be deleted in localities where they are no longer used.

Cooperation between vocational and academic teacher is necessary. Children learn more easily and have more interest when they have an opportunity to actually use measures.

4. What is the value of time tests?

Time tests have been used with success by some members of the

group.

Time tests tend to eliminate counting on the fingers. However, there is no proof that said counting is detrimental to the learning process.

5. Should more attention be given to the number system?

It was felt that greater emphasis and more time spent on the number system will facilitate understanding in the intermediate and advanced levels.

6. Which of two methods of subtraction is preferable?

Some felt that adding to the subtrahend is better and quicker method than borrowing from the minuends. However, it was felt that the former is a mechanical rather than a reasoned approach.

To summarize, the group agreed that teachers should do more action research and then answers to these problems can come from the classroom itself. Teachers who use new ideas with good results should share these ideas with others.

Workshop III-Mathematics, Advanced

(Leader: Mr. David Mudgett, Illinois School, Jacksonville) (Recorder: Marie Lloyd, Washington School, Vancouver)

Following the line of thought given in our keynote address, we asked the question, "Can we upgrade math in our schools?" We feel that our students are capable of more advanced math than they are getting, but that we as teachers are helpless to do much about it without the cooperation of our administrators. We wish it were possible for administrators to attend some of our meetings at conventions rather than having their own meetings at the same time as ours,

This group feels that many of our deaf students are not reaching their full potential in mathematics; that even slower learners are capable of greater achievement to better fit them for the demands of today's world.

While we recognize the fact that language and reading are important subjects, we feel that mathematics is also important, and should not be neglected for the above-mentioned subjects. We feel that all children are capable of more mathematics if given the opportunity, but they need an earlier start.

When schools are large enough, we can adjust our program for college and non-college-bound students, but there is a danger here. Some children are not given the opportunity to study algebra, and as a result, are unable to pass college entrance exams, when they might other-

wise have been able to do so.

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We feel that children should be given the opportunity to study advanced mathematics in spite of weaknesses in language and reading. We recommend that when possible classes be divided during the day according to their ability. That is, students of equal ability should be placed together in a mathematic class, and can be regrouped for language and other subjects. "Slow" children in our schools need more mathematics than most of them are getting today.

ADVANCED MATHEMATICS (2)

It has been proven that algebra can be added to the arithmetic program in grades 7 and 8 without impairing or neglecting the arithmetic. In fact, algebra helps make arithmetic more understandable to many students, and they are able to show a gain in arithmetic achievement tests after a study of algebra. Algebra books are more satisfactory for this purpose than the algebra section of the average arithmetic textbook. We need to maintain arithmetic skills while teaching algebra. This can be done effectively by the use of workbooks for study hour periods, or weekend assignments.

We urge our principals and superintendents to give all children an opportunity to meet their individual needs. Children should not be forced into a program where their needs are not met. If classes cannot be grouped according to their ability, it is the duty of the teacher to provide enough individual work that children with more

ability are not held down to the level of the slower learners.

Most of the group feels that mechanical drawing belongs to the vocational department rather than the mathematics class room. However, one teacher has found that about 2 weeks work devoted to the study of mechanical drawing taught the children neatness and accuracy, and developed originality and creative expression.

ADVANCED MATHEMATICS (3)

Our experience with newer textbooks, based on modern psychological concepts, shows that much more can be taught with better understanding. We urge schools for the deaf to investigate some of the newer textbooks, such as the Henderson books, published by McGraw-Hill, "The World of Numbers," and others.

Only with adequate study hall work can our children keep up with modern demands in arithmetic. Older children need more time for

after school study than is allowed by many of our schools.

Workshop IV-Mathematics, SLOW LEARNERS

(Leader: Mr. K. Lange, Oregon School, Salem) (Recorder: Mrs. B. Attleweed, California School, Berkeley)

This session was well represented with teachers from various schools who have had, or are now having classes with slow learners. We did not follow Mr. Auerbach's lecture as we were in a different group. The session was opened with discussions on materials and methods.

Mr. Ernest Tinsmith, of New York, presented his method of teaching arithmetic in units of tens, involving two different colors or a set of colors. He stated that a book describing the method in full details could be obtained at the New York School for the Deaf, "Visual Arithmetic," by E. Tinsmith.

Various other teachers gave their methods of getting the children to learn the arithmetic fundamentals. Some of the methods are: to start off the children on teacher-made materials to see where they are; using concrete materials to bring out the concepts of arithmetic; use the Scott Foresman books which are simply prepared for the children in interesting forms.

Mr. Lange asked if there was a book or some materials that were grouped according to the fundamentals for the children to refer to as the need came up. He felt that the test books were too complex. No school seems to have a book except Mr. Davidowitz who had an old one, outdated.

The question: How much time in the day should be allotted for arithmetic? There seems to be no actual set of time except for work problems learned in the classroom outside. This brought up the topic of working arithmetic along with vocational training. This, the teachers felt, could be done if, as the need came up, but was too difficult to set a plan due to ages and ability of students and the various shops the students took up. One school (New Jersey) has a third person to teach mathematics and language as a gapfiller between vocational and academic work.

Question: How to help the child get more from practical arithmetic? One way was to devote more to time work and the value of money. In the question of time this was to be used in beginning with the child's daily routine and use the clock face to show how; use ditto work; use an old clock to show the difference in the minute and hour hand. Then the topic of telling the difference between after and to was discussed. One method was to use the Scotch term—the front half and the back half of the clock and to show the difference by shading one side. All agreed that these two words were too confusing to be used. The value of money was discussed in an activity form with a store using toy money as well as actual money, teaching vocabulary along with it.

The question of counting with fingers came up. It was felt that we should let the child count with his fingers to avoid frustration, and to encourage him to gain confidence. Most of us felt that it was best not to destroy the child's system but to suggest a better one. This brought up the use of flash cards. There were some pros and cons concerning this. Some felt that if they failed in a regular classroom, they didn't want them as they may embarrass the children. Others felt they were good for individual work activities.

It was felt that pupils good in mathematics, but poor in reading, should be encouraged to read and work on arithmetic problems using cue words as needs arise. Others stressed on dramatizing the problem so the pupils could reason out what they should do. Most of us felt that homework had very little value.

In how far the teacher should go, it was felt that she should go as

far as the child could go in his ability to learn arithmetic.

Some methods of teaching fractions were discussed, using dividing

and colors to show the difference.

In solving problems, we felt that answers should be labeled and that they should be reasonable. This was pointed out by drawing pictures to show the differences and joking or humoring the children about silly answers.

Should a slow learner rotate? Most of us felt it would work out very well and would be less of a strain on the teacher and students.

The issue of communication came up, and all felt that the mode of communication plays a part on a slow child's previous school progress. It also plays a part on the personality, emotional, and social growth.

Mr. Lange felt that the teachers of the slow learners have a greater challenge of teaching a child his practical daily mathematics than one who teaches higher mathematics for it is an overall problem. It was again stressed that arithmetic was taught better as the need came up.

WORKSHOP V-MATHEMATICS, ALGEBRA

(Leader: Thomas Ulmer, Oregon School, Salem) (Recorder: James Flood, Ohio School, Columbus)

The section leader brought to the attention of the workshop group the names of two textbooks which he thought were good for the purpose of the group, which was gathered to discuss algebra.

The books were: Henderson and Aiken, McGraw-Hill Co., "Problem Solving I and II," and Frielich-Berman-Johnson, Houghton Mifflin

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The length of class periods and number of periods were discussed and it developed that, in some States both were fixed by law, and varied in all. No firm decision or recommendation was possible under such circumstances, but it was the opinion of the workshop group that

five periods per week over a 2-year span would be desirable.

The group discussed the composition of algebra classes: How the subject was offered, and to whom. The discussion brought out that in this also there was a great variance. Some schools offered the subject in different high school grades. Some limited the group to certain qualified students. Others to those students who were planning to take the Gallaudet College entrance examinations only. Mr. Auerbach, the keynote speaker at the morning session, had stressed the hope that the subject could be taught in lower levels than currently was programed. The group agreed that it would be desirable but practical considerations such as the ability of the students in the schools of the Nation, the curriculum of the schools, the legal requirements in some States, and other factors did not always make such an upgrading either possible or practical.

The discussion also covered the question of dropouts and various ways of handling this problem were mentioned, including enrolling

students on a trial basis for a stipulated time, permitting failures to

discourage the incompetent, etc.

A discussion in which Mr. John Kubis, instructor in the preparatory class at Gallaudet College was a participant, developed the specific agreements that algebra should cover the usual subject matter up, and, if possible, beyond quadratics and that stretching out elementary algebra to that over a 2-year period might be both desirable and necessary in some instances.

Concrete examples of special techniques for teaching verbal algebra

problems offered at the workshop included:

1. Graphically analyzing the problem (drawing pictures of it)

before attempting to find a solution was helpful.

2. Using the outdoor temperature during the summer and (especially) the winter aided in forming the concepts of plus and minus.

Taking children up in elevators of tall buildings and stopping at various floors (zero) then labeling floors above as plus and

those below as minus would aid.

3. Grouping verbal problems of a similar type together, explaining a few and permitting the class to solve the others, was suggested as an effective way to teach verbal problems that could

be so grouped.

4. It was suggested that basic fundamentals of algebra such as addition, subtraction, division, and multiplication be taught the class as a group, then each student be put on a workbook to progress at a rate of his own choosing. It was further suggested that the fastest be held to a reasonable rate of progress by the enrichment of such work, with verbal problems to keep the class as a whole together as far as desirable.

5. The group discussed formulas and it was suggested that, in all problems for which a solution was required, the formula be

written as part of the computation.

The group agreed that problem solving was more than just the concern of the teacher of mathematics. The success of any student was also dependent upon his understanding or comprehension of the language in which the problem was stated.

ALGEBRA-AFTERNOON SESSION-SUMMARY

Additional techniques:

1. Teach selected list of words commonly found in first year algebra—

(a) before classes begin;(b) as class progresses;

(c) other.

2. Teach understanding of phrase, or algebraic verbal expression which may be written in different ways.

3. Stress periodical reviews of mechanical operation, language,

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and vocabulary.

For want of sufficient material upon which to base an opinion, the workshop group did not feel competent to determine just how fair these Gallaudet College entrance examinations were.

THURSDAY, JUNE 29, 1961

SPEECH

Play shed—Section leader: Tony Christopulos, principal, Utah School, Ogden. Keynote theme: "Communication Output of Deaf Children."

9-9:15 a.m.

Introduction.

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9:15-9:50 a.m.

Keynote speaker: Miss Patricia Stafford, director, Teacher Training Department, Los Angeles State College.

10-11:45 a.m.

School building-Morning workshops.

A. Lower school speech:

Leader: Mrs. Pearl Hickman, Tucker-Maxon School, Portland, Oreg.

Discussion period.

B. The association method for teaching speech for the slow learning deaf child.

Leader: Mrs. Jo Deeter Watts, principal, Edna E. Davis School, Spokane,
Wash.

Recorder: Mrs. Cecil Anderson, Edna E. Davis School.

Discussion period.

C. Middle school speech :

Leader: Miss Aleen Hunt, Utah School for the Deaf, extension, Salt Lake

Dr.

Recorder: Miss Margo Butler, Hearing and Speech Foundation, Salt Lake City.

Discussion period.

D. Advanced and high school—"Possible? Probable? Realistic?"

Leader: Mr. Wallace Bruce, Utah School for the Deaf.

Recorder: Miss Jane Schoenfield, Utah School for the Deaf, Extension, Salt Lake City.

1:15-1:45 p.m.

Afternoon sessions of speech workshop:

Play shed—A. Lower school demonstration.

School building-B. Middle school demonstration.

C. Upper or advanced group visit demonstrations for lower and middle school groups.

1:45-2:15 p.m.

Discussion groups.

2:15-2:45 p.m.

Workshop participants and recorders formulate report.

2:45-3:45 p.m.

Play shed—Section meeting to summarize workshops.

COMMUNICATION OUTPUT OF DEAF CHILDREN

(Miss Patricia Stafford, director, Teacher Training Department, Los Angeles State College)

Speech is the oral, the sounding part of that unique and most wonderful gift of man called language. We read language, too, and write it, and thus language has grown and been preserved, from the earliest pictograph and hieratic to the latest month when more books are published than any sensible man could read in a lifetime. Sound is believed to have come first. Speaking about speech, then, involves speaking about sound.

Sound begins as a vibration caused by a remarkable little instrument in our throats. It grows, is amplified a hundredfold, and without effort on our part, by the peculiarly shaped passages above, and with the most delicate movement of some of the outlines of these cavities, we produce modifications that spell subtle differences to a listening ear. The sound consists of waves that travel at their own constant speed disturbing the air less than a summer breeze—though what the sound is saying, depending upon who produces it, may rouse half a world and disturb the other half (recent summit conferences use of oral communication). And, if the communication is to be complete there will be another marvelous little instrument that can catch for record the pattern of the original vibrator. The pattern tells the differences. Speech communication involves difference-producing and difference-detecting mechanisms.

It follows, then, that a person whose difference-detecting mechanism is inadequate must depend to greater or lesser degree upon out-

side help in developing his difference-producing mechanism.

Let us leave this last thought here and pick it up later. Now let us return to speech and sound because sound is only part of speech communication. There is also what precedes sound, which must be a great deal more than silence, and what by reception follows it. Only part of speech is in the air. The other part is in our brains.

It is natural for us to think of this other part of speech—the part that is in our brains as language and to think of languages as a system of word symbols—used to represent objects, ideas, and feelings. But Penfield maintains that more word symbols reside in our brains. He states that three interacting but separate brain mechanisms record:

(1) Individual experiences, i.e., every experience of which we

have been aware throughout our lives.

(2) Concepts or generalizations, i.e., successive perceptions of experiences which with their concomitant interpretations and reinterpretations develop concepts.

(3) Words—at first related to particulars, eventually related

to concepts.

Experiences over the years continue to reinforce the interrelationships among these records particularly the last two so that when a person wants to express an idea the word normally comes forth or when the listener or reader hears or sees a word, a mental image of

the idea is immediately summoned.

Normally the acquisition of meaningful word symbols and their systematization takes place in familiar stages which are dependent upon the overall development of the child. The learning of the mother tongue is normally an inevitable process. The child is not learning language as such. Rather, he is developing it as a byproduct of his learning about life, of his learning to manage himself in relation to his environment and the persons in his environment.

Developmental stages of spoken language have been described by McCarthy, Poole, Irwin, Gesell, etc. Tervoort has drawn attention to the time sequence of the developmental stages—each stage having

a peculiar readiness or sensitivity.

The timetable of this developmental pattern points out the implications for the deaf child. The deaf child is likely to progress normally through the babbling stage. Unless effort is made to stimulate continued babbling and to attach meaning to preferred sound repetitions these physiologically and psychologically sensitive stages are lost.

During the time that the nondeaf child is learning to relate to and manipulate his environment with his developing linguistic power the deaf child is not idle. He is exploring his environment through his other senses and learning to manage it to some degree by gestures. He is, however, becoming silent, thus disrupting the normal language timetable. As the difference related mechanisms become keener for the nondeaf child the sounding part of his speech becomes subordinated to the content. Gradually control of his breath, voice, enunciation, pronunciation, and rhythm in speaking become automatic. This is accomplished through feedback between these difference oriented The deaf child, on the other hand, begins (3 or 4 or 5 years late) what Myklebust has aptly described as one of the most difficult problems of learning known, viz, to receive an auditory language through other than auditory channels; to internalize it somehow; and to express his thoughts and feelings in this arbitrarily arranged symbol system. When one considers the immensity of the task, one begins to appreciate the deaf child's accomplishments.

What has been done to help him and what more can be done? It is comparatively easy to evaluate at one moment and under the circumstance of that moment, how much he has been helped because his spoken and written language products are the results of (1) his efforts to attain self-realization in this area; and (2) the combined services

of those who served as teachers in the process.

An estimate of some of the efforts to direct the deaf child's learning reveals the following facts: It has been realized that experience is the basis of all learning. Teachers in cooperation with parents have provided varieties of experiences and have tried to supply natural language in these meaningful situations. Opportunities have been seized or contrived for helping the deaf child to internalize the language applicable to these situations. Opportunities have been provided for him to use this language spontaneously. His efforts have been encouraged and his successes identified and praised.

Perhaps not enough attention has been paid to how he thinks. Recent experiments show that deaf children are equivalent to their hearing peers in conceptual thinking and generalization. Careful study of spoken and written language should provide information for improvement in teaching language. Let me give one example: Children were trying to tell that a baby elephant had reached adult

size. They said:

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(1) The baby elephant grow bigger and bigger.

(2) When the baby elephant grow up a little a while.

(3) The next morning baby elephant grow big as her mother.

(4) The baby elephant grew biggest.

(5) Then the elephant was grow tall than before.

Certainly deaf children can think critically and creatively as well as associationally. However, we need to monitor this process more actively. Another way to consider the thinking of the deaf child is in relation to Penfield's three recording mechanisms. Both the stream of consciousness recorded as it were on a film (always a meaningful but never an abiding pattern) and the visual images (recorded as developed by the concept mechanism) seem to operate normally. But what of the word record? How is it developed? Neilson and others have stated that concepts develop in both hemispheres of the brain but that language develops in the dominant hemisphere only. Is this true

of deaf children? Is this phenomenon not largely dependent upon

auditory pathways?

If language symbols related to experience in meaningful situations consist of lip movements (accompanied by facial expressions, gesture, directed gaze, etc.) how do these symbols get into the brain and how are they recorded? Are they not detoured over the visual pathway? It would seem that eventually they are related to read symbols. If this were done earlier would it be helpful or would it add to disruption of the developmental pattern of the whole child? The use of finger spelling and the typewriter with preschool deaf children in Russia was apparently based upon the idea of using other channels to reinforce early reception of lipread symbols. Such procedure seems to disregard muscle development patterns in young children. The claims of rapid vocabulary gains need to be viewed in relation to total development. The preceding considerations have been related mainly

to the content of speech.

Now let us return to the sounding part of speech. Having lost the time at which the speech mechanism was sensitive to development and having started the deaf child on a plan of meaningful language acquisition, a program of expressive oral language is also begun. Following a late start attempts have been made to approximate the normal developmental stages of voice production, single word approximation with meaning, eventually word combinations. It is not possible for nondeaf persons to fully appreciate the efforts required to express this auditory language, when each bit of this production must be consciously learned. What has been done to facilitate this process for the deaf child? Multisensory approaches, color associations, systematic accessory associations, e.g. hand analogies, have been developed. Teachers have tried to be adequate monitors by improving their own difference producing and difference detecting mechanisms in order to prevent faulty production on the part of the deaf child. Increasing use is being made of auditory feedback and perhaps better use of kinesthetic feedback by seizing the moment of good speech production to congratulate the child and help him establish his correct pattern by repeating it. More use of tactile input offers possibilities. An important feature often neglected is insistence upon gentle unexaggerated movements and strict avoidance of exaggerated muscular efforts.

One of the serious lacks is a systematic continuous program of auditory training and speech conservation. The work of Frisina and Wedenberg offer some direction in this area. Some good programs have been developed at preschool and elementary school levels. They are often discontinued or minimized at or before secondary level. Better articulation between school levels seems indicated. Renewed interest on the part of the children in improving speech is frequently found at secondary level (possibly for social reasons). Speech clubs, social problems classes, or dramatic activities should serve a dual pur-

pose for teenage students.

It is important to examine research findings and to learn what applications have already been made of them. X-ray films of the speech mechanism outlined in dye, for example, suggests possibilities for more natural speech sound positions. Judging from reports, Van Uden and his associates seem to be making a strong effort to incorporate the newest findings into the program of improving communication output of deaf children. It begins with early diagnosis, followed

by visiting trained social workers to help parents make optimum use of the critically sensitive phases of normal language development. Then comes a global consideration of deaf children developing speech through a (1) sound internalization vibration program, (2) blow organs incorporating breath control, pitch, volume, accent, and melody in speech production, (3) the dance program—teaching fundamentals and promoting creative interpretations, (4) and now the intensive use of feedback incorporating up-to-date individualized electronic equipment, visual feedback to improve lipreading, extended use of tactile and kinesthetic feedback, frequent reevaluations, and followup of graduates. This complete approach seems well founded and forward looking.

Someone named a movie about the deaf "Thursday's Children" implying, of course, that they had far to go. It seems to me that they have been hard working, cheerful, and patient en route. It also seems to me that those in charge of their education have quite a distance to travel, too, in planning and carrying out an improved developmental

journey for deaf children.

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WORKSHOP REPORTS

Workshop I—Speech—Lower School Section

(Leader: E. Aleen Hunt, Utah School Day Class, Salt Lake City) (Recorder: Reid C. Miller, Hosford Day School, Portland, Oreg.)

The following is a summary of the discussion by the 31 members

of this section meeting.

Speech is the natural mode of communication in a hearing world. It is desirable that all deaf children have the opportunity to acquire the skills necessary to speak. The early years of instruction seem to place greatest emphasis on learning to speak. Most deaf children can learn speech that is intelligible to their teachers, families, and close associates. A large percentage can be understood by persons who are not acquainted with the deaf. This latter condition is the true test of intelligibility. The greatest degree of communication occurs when the listener expects to understand and the deaf child expects to be understood.

Young children need to build speech readiness before formal instruction is given. Early recognition of deafness, parent education as to the nature of deafness and to help in acceptance of the handicap, the degree of hearing loss and the ability to use residual hearing plus an atmosphere which motivates speech and fosters communication are ingredients which contribute toward speech readiness and speech usage. When the child is mentally, emotionally, and physiologically prepared and is strongly motivated, he is ready for speech. If this is delayed too long in deaf children, it may be much more

difficult for them to achieve.

Parents and teachers of young children should not be overanxious for speech for speech's sake. In early years the emphasis should be placed on understanding and showing the child that speech is a useful tool. What the child is attempting to say should always be more important than how he says it. It is usually wise to react to what the child has to say before attempts are made to improve his speech.

The program being used in England was described. Through their public health program babies have their hearing checked. Those

found to be deaf are fitted with hearing aids where needed at an early age—often at 12 months. Clinics assist those parents who are capable of instructing their children at home until they are 4 years old. If parents are unable to carry on their child's instruction, the child enters nursery school at age 2.

The importance of parents having part in their child's early introduction to speech was discussed. In order for a child to have the proper objective acceptance of himself and his handicap, parents and others must accept his handicap, neither minimizing or overempha-

sizing it.

Some members noted that as children progress in school there seems to be a decline in spontaneity of speech and in intelligibility. A partially completed study was reported in which children who had attended schools for the deaf for 1 to 3 years were observed to have much less spontaneous use of speech than they had exhibited when they were attending a preschool. Rapid growth in vocabulary, increased volume of subject matter, and greater complexity in the life situation

were given as possible reasons for the change.

To combat these influences it was suggested that every child should have daily speech and voice building instruction throughout his school life. The child should be assisted to express himself in the language needed in his various subjects and activities, not just in speech period. Equally important is the opportunity for the child to practice his speech outside the classroom. Parents and houseparents should talk with the children and expect them to speak. The plan used in Wyoming in which children attending the State school for the deaf are placed in homes with hearing foster parents and children rather than in dormitories was described as having merit in fostering speech outside the classroom.

A number of needs were noted the attainment of which would have a beneficial effect on teaching and the use of speech. A plea was made for more information of ways to teach speech to young deaf children who are very nonvocal and silent. Teachers need to be aware of research findings concerning the speech of deaf children. It needs to appear in the magazines the teachers are most likely to read. There is very little appearing currently in magazines concerning the speech of deaf children. One of the greatest needs is for schools and teachers to experiment with ways of implementing the research that has been done so that it can be applied in classroom teaching. Classroom teachers were urged to be more venturesome in attempting this type of research and then reporting their findings so that others can be aware of them.

WORKSHOP II-MIDDLE SCHOOL SPEECH

(Leader: Mrs. C. Schloeman) (Recorder: Mrs. N. O. Anderson)

Miss Stafford's statement that language is in three parts—we speak it, we read it, and we understand it, was the beginning of our discussion. The timetable for language development is the 2- to 6-year period. The problem of the deaf child in this speech communication cycle is the lack of the detecting mechanism of the auditory pathway.

1. Can a deaf child become orally minded? Yes, with motivation to give oral responses a deaf child begins to use the voice as a useful tool of communication. Sometimes the children find that they must give an oral response before they can write it. The concept of speech for the deaf child as primarily a form of mental development has been the most fundamental contribution of the 20th century. He

grows mentally through development of speech.

2. If a child can become orally minded when should speech be begun? The parents hold the role of the first speech teacher for the deaf child. The parent must talk constantly to the child before he will realize any return from this. To be effective at this the parent must first accept the fact that he has a deaf child. He should admit the feelings that he does not like the idea that his child is deaf, that he wishes his child were normal, but that he must realize that his child does have a handicap. They both have a problem—the parent and the child, but the child's is the greater and this is the one to

concentrate on.

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3. Can a deaf child's speech become perfect? What shall we accept as the ultimate goal? We know that the speech can never be normal but it can be intelligible to everyone. We must be practical and learn as much as we can about the whole child and know just how far he can advance. The child who does not verbally respond to speech training and an oral environment often has an added handicap such as brain injury and should be carefully studied. The normal deaf child's speech does not stop if he knows how to use it and wants to use it. Expectancy is a motivating factor in the child's use of speech. The child knows the teacher expects good speech; he knows that the parent expects good speech; and this makes him want to speak better. When the deaf child is among strangers quite often he will not have intelligible speech. When the load of academic subjects is overwhelming and the child is hurried the speech suffers.

As the first speech sounds are developed and the child gives them through imitation he feels the correct imitative pattern. Later he will follow this pattern with only a reminder and finally will do it spontaneously. The goal of the middle school is that the child is able to

correct his own speech with only a clue.

4. How does the deaf child's speech differ? The quality and pitch may differ and so it is necessary that he be taught and reminded through the years to use a pleasing voice. In his later years he will be able to tell by the kinesthetic feeling whether his voice quality is

accentable

Do the rhythm, accent, and phrasing give trouble? What exercises for breath control are used? Breath control is a chief problem in getting the correct phrasing. Other than the known ways of teaching breath control one person mentioned that she has been having success with the use of a toy blowpipe with a small ball in the bowl. The object is to keep the ball suspended in air at different levels. Using the clapping of hands is a good method to get the rhythm for songs. It is also beneficial to use a record player and have the songs written and marked according to the rhythm and accent so the children can use a visual clue. Also useful is a tape recording of the children reading poems, which can be played back to them through their individual aids. By means of the acoustic pressure they can often be shown where they have lost the rhythm. Most in the group agree

that the speech exercises as used in the beginning speech programs are definitely helpful in the middle school and that it is up to the teacher to use her ingenuity to play the same kind of games under a

different name.

5. Problems arise with the teacher of middle school children in that there are differences of opinion as to when a deaf child's speech should be corrected. When the child is trying to tell something, should be be interrupted to correct his speech or should he be allowed to finish so as not to interrupt his train of thought? One of the ways this might be done is to listen to him, understand him, accept what he is saying, and then say, "The language is very good, but I think it can be said in a little better way"; and then give him the correct way. The correction of a deaf child's speech must often be an individual approach, as some children do not object to interruption and correction of speech, whereas others may become negative toward speech.

6. What are some of the aids which are used in the teaching of

speech?

(a) Chromovox: Although most schools have these, few of

them are being used.

(b) Mirrors: In middle school the best benefits result when the teacher works alone with the older child in another room, if

possible. In a group they do become self-conscious.

(c) Northampton charts: In middle school most teachers feel that they should not be too analytical in the approach to teaching speech, but that it is necessary to review the speech sounds with the children from time to time and to reinforce previous training.

(d)Tachistoscope or Flash-O-Meter.

Some activities used in the teaching of speech:

(a) Chain spelling: One child gives a word, the next child takes the end consonant and makes a word beginning with that consonant, etc.

(b) Writing words phonetically: Using your method of phonetic spelling. It was suggested that great care should be taken

in the overuse of phonetics in the spelling of words.

(c) Flash a word on the screen using the Tachistoscope or other means and have the child tell you the word.

7. How can we make the deaf child's speech functional? This can be done by taking him shopping, by sending him on errands, by having him use the telephone, and by encouraging him to participate

in social groups.

Middle school speech is a most important step along the speech road of the deaf child. It is here that the learnings of past speech skills need to be reinforced. Middle school speech is a critical era in the communication development of the deaf. It is the teacher's responsibility to continue the encouragement of good speech so that the deaf child moves on into the advanced grades with a firm conviction that his speech is a functional asset to his future.

Workshop III—The Application of the McGinnis-CID Associa-TION METHOD IN TEACHING SPEECH TO THE SLOW LEARNING DEAF CHILD

(Leader: Mrs. Jo Deeter Watts, Davis School, Spokane, Wash.) (Recorder: Mrs. Jean Welling, Utah School, Ogden)

The workshop today is an outgrowth of a summer course at Central

Institute in the McGinnis-CID Association method.

The association method which Miss McGinnis has shown to be an effective method in teaching aphasic children to communicate has proved to be equally successful in the teaching of the slow learning deaf child. At the Edna E. Davis School in Spokane, we selected a group of pupils who had been wholly unsuccessful orally and used with them the association method as presented today for the development of speech and beginning language. The results exceeded our expectations to the degree that we shall use this part of the association method in the teaching of speech in the lower grades.

During the workshop period materials were presented with the aid of the opaque projector—showing the sequence of the presentation of the materials for the first and second units of language in the seven

steps which comprise the association method.

The devices which characterize the association method were discussed:

1. The structured setting.

2. The use of color.

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3. The use of the cursive script.

4. The exactness of speech positions.

5. The basic principles of learning: attention, retention, and recall.

6. The practice of "breaking" each word into its phonetic parts

before "smoothing."

We at the Davis school have been impressed with the accuracy of speech production, the excellent degree of self-monitoring by the child, and the splendid recall which is evidenced in our experimental group. We expect to find the same factors to a greater degree when this method is used with our normal deaf children.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS EVOLVING FROM THE WORKSHOP

1. Question: Would a school which uses the whole word approach have n

difficult time making the transition?

Answer: It seems likely that they might. The use of the Northampton charts in the single element and syllable method of teaching speech makes for easy transition.

2. Question: When are words in sentence form taken up? Answer: Immediately upon completion of the baby book.

3. Question: Would the same drill leading to a word be used to introduce new nouns?

Answer: Yes, until all of the phonetic elements have been mastered.

4. Question: Is it necessary for the child "to stand on the line"?

Answer: This simple device leads the child to give full attention to the business at hand and results in an excellence of performance.

5. Question: Does the child use the questions which are set apart in a frame when he assumes the "teacher role"?

Answer: Yes, he uses them just as the teacher has.

6. Question: Do you make individual books for each child?

Answer: Yes. The child has a reference book showing each drill which was first presented on the board.

7. Question: Are there any special colors?

Answer: No, the color of itself has no significance, but each change of color signifies the necessity of pronouncing that sound in its rightful sequence.

8. Question: Is there a book available on the association method?

Answer: Miss McGinnis and CID are working on such a text. It can't be published too soon.

Workshop IV—Speech in the Upper Grades—Possible? PROBABLE? REALISTIC?

(Leader: Mr. Wallace Bruce, Utah School, Ogden)

(Recorder: Miss Jane Schoenfeld, Utah School, Extension School, Salt Lake City)

Probably no area in the education of the deaf has been so extensively debated and discussed as that of speech. Some members of the profession maintain that only a minority of our students will ever attain functional speech, regardless of the time, effort, and type of program. Other members feel that a majority of our deaf boys and girls could develop functional speech under more favorable circumstances. The purpose of the discussion group was to share ideas, opinions, and suggestions concerning the status of speech in the upper grades.

The following is an outline of the comments made during the first part of the period. The discussion centered about six main topics:

I. What factors have limited the number of older deaf students having functional speech outside of the home and class-

(a) Neglect to use and maintain speech in later years.

(b) Academic pressures that influence some teachers to minimize time spent on speech.

(c) Nonoral methods of communication replace speech.

(d) Language forms and vocabulary are more difficult—both for speaker and listener.

(e) Few "speech oriented" teachers in upper grades.

(f) Lack of conviction on part of adults and administration that a majority of deaf children can gain functional speech.

(g) Lack of positive orientation for students concerning value on speech and need for continued practice and effort.

(h) Less parent support as students grow older.

(i) Social and individual problems connected with adolescence.

II. Have we reached the realistic "maximum" in our efforts to give the deaf child functional speech? Would further effort be justified by improved speech?

Although it was accepted that some children will never develop functional speech, it was generally felt that these children were a small minority. The feeling of the group was that to stop the speech program at the end of the middle grades deprives many of the boys and girls from developing functional speech. Several teachers stressed the interest older boys and girls have in improving their speech as graduation approaches and they must begin to think of leaving school.

In our concern for the minority whose speech probably will never become functional, have we penalized the majority for whom speech

could have been possible?

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The discussion group did not share the belief held by some members of the profession that a speech program in the upper grades need weaken the academic or vocational programs. With a welltrained staff speech can become an integrated part of each period.

The discussion group felt no quarrel with the philosophy that the deaf child needs an unlimited number of daily experiences in language development. It was their belief, however, that speech could be

used as a tool in furthering this development.

III. What steps might be taken by administrators to assist in the development of more functional speech by our older students?

(a) Improved grouping on upper grade levels.

(b) Placing more trained and speech-oriented teachers in upper grades.

(c) Continued parent education.

(d) Conduct public education program to acquaint outsiders with speech of the deaf.

(e) Have active speech program in upper grades.

Note.—It was generally accepted by the group that the personal convictions of the administration toward speech generally determine the speech atmosphere within the school. Schools with administrators who do not believe that the majority of deaf students can gain functional speech probably will have few students with functional speech.)

> IV. What can teachers do to assist in the development of more functional speech in the upper grades?

(a) Encourage more oral activities, especially between students and hearing community.

(b) Improve personal ability through study, research, and experimentation. (c) Plan your daily program to allow for maximum encourage-

ment of speech. (d) Be a crusader! (Have statistics to justify your beliefs.)

V. Does the "present speech product" we are turning out justify the time spent during the earlier years?

(a) Teachers representing day schools felt the majority of their students were gaining functional speech, basic language comprehension, and an ability to function within the hearing community.

(b) Teachers representing residential schools felt that much more could be done for many of their students. They felt that there was sufficient evidence within the profession to justify a speech program on an upper level for the majority of their boys and girls.

(c) The teachers from the residential schools felt that much of the speech effort during the primary and middle grades was only

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partially effective because of the failure to carry the speech program into the upper grades.

VI. Needs for the future

(a) More objective long-term research on speech methodology. (b) Campaign to improve attitudes within profession toward speech.

(c) More trained teachers who are "speech oriented."
(d) Utilization of the "speaking deaf" to encourage students in their efforts to gain functional speech.

(e) Parent-guidance program.
(f) Improve public understanding of education of the deaf.
The second part of the discussion period concerned answers given to a survey.

	Residential	Day	Private
How many of your teenage deaf students have functional speech that they can use in daily activities at home and			
school?			
Vast majority	0	4	1
Majority	4	3	
Some, but less than half	5	2	
A few	7	0	
2. How many of your teenage deaf students have functional speech that they can use in daily activities outside of home and school?			
Vast majority	0	3	1
	1	4	
Majority Some, but less than half	5	1	(
A few	10	1]
3. To what degree do you believe functional speech is essential to the young deaf graduate as he seeks employment? Essential for maximum job opportunities.	10	7	2
Valuable, but positions can usually be found where it	10		
isn't required	. 5	2	2
Jobs are available that do not require speech that are		-	
equal in stature and pay with those requiring speech	0	0	0
Not of major concern	1	0	(
i. Do you think it possible to have a strong speech program		1	
in the upper grades without weakening the academic			
program? Yes	9	6	
Yes Only with skilled staff	5	2	4
No; insufficient time	1	1	
Results wouldn't justify effort for majority of our	1	4	
children	2	0	(
Do you believe that an intensive speech program during		~	,
the 1st 6 or 7 years only would be sufficient to give the		1	
deaf child functional speech as a teenager and an adult?			
Yes; with some exceptions	1	0	(
Would depend upon how often he used speech in later			
life	3	1	1
Only the exceptional deaf child would ever have func-	0	,	0
tional speech under such a program	2	1	·
ever gain functional speech	3	1	0
Functional speech requires continued effort into adult-	0		
hood	6	5	2
. Viewing the older students in your school, which statement	-	*	
is most applicable to their speech potential?	1		
Probably most of them will never obtain functional			
speech outside of home and school because of the			
nature of their handicap	3	1	0
It would have been possible for the majority of them to have developed functional speech for activities out-			
side of home and school if additional time and effort			
had been devoted to speech.	7	2	2
Although it might have been possible to obtain better		-	
speech, it would not have been realistic in light of the			
time and effort that would have been required	1	0	0
The majority of our boys and girls have functional			
speech by the time they graduate	3	6	0
If they had been trained by skilled teachers the outcome	1	0	0
would have been different	Ι,	0 1	

	Residential	Day	Private
Please evaluate the speech program for your upper grades. Daily speech classes for all students. Daily speech classes for those showing promise of developing functional speech. Classes are optional for students. It is felt by administration that time can be more profit-	3 4 1	7 0 0	1
ably spent in academic and vocational work. No speech program 2 times a week	. 4	0	(

CONCLUSIONS

1. The majority of students attending day schools or private schools attain functional speech.

2. The majority of students attending residential schools do not

attain functional speech.

3. The majority of students attending residential schools could attain functional speech if:

(a) More favorable speech atmosphere existed on campus.
(b) More "speech-oriented" teachers were in upper grades.
(c) More trained teachers were available on all levels.

(d) Improved and more positive attitude toward speech were developed within students, teachers, and administrators.

(Note.—Language development, academic progress, and vocational preparation need not be penalized by carrying out a properly designed speech program throughout entire school program.)

THURSDAY, JUNE 29, 1961

PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISING TEACHERS

9-9:15 a.m.

Introduction: Albert Douglas.

9:15-9:50 a.m.

"The Accelerated Child," Edward L. Scouten, chairman, Preparatory Department, Gallaudet College.

Interpreters: Ralph Hoag, Eldon Shipman.

10-11:30 a.m.

Morning session of principals and supervising teachers.

WORKSHOPS

A. Pupil evaluation:

Leader: Richard K. Lane, Department for Deaf, Florida School. Interpreter: James R. Kirkley.

B. Teacher evaluation:

Leader: Miss Frances I. Phillips, principal, Kendall School, Gallaudet College.

Recorder: Harriet Gough. Interpreter: R. M. McAdams. C. Day-residential school relationships:

Leader: Dr. Richard Krug, director, Dallas Pilot Institute for the Deaf. Interpreter: Lloyd Parks.

D. The accelerated child:

Leader: Mr. Armin Turechek, principal, California School for the Deaf, Riverside.

Interpreter: Ralph Hoag.

Primary Building.—Ē. Parent counseling: Leader: Marshall S. Hester, superintendent, New Mexico.

Recorder: Mrs. Dorothy H. Brentlinger.

Interpreter: Eldon Shipman.

1:15-2:15 p.m.

Afternoon session of principals and supervising teachers.

2:15-3:45 p.m.

Section meeting to summarize workshops.

4 p.m.

Play shed—Film: "Russian School for the Deaf," courtesy Dr. Edgar L. Lowell.

THE ACCELERATED CHILD

(EDWARD L. Scouten, chairman, Preparatory Department, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.)

An analysis of the subject

The subject of this paper is "The Accelerated Child." In it we have been asked to touch upon a variety of problems specifically related to the preparation of deaf children for higher education and to propose some suggestions which will aid supervising teachers and principals in their fulfilling this mission. Actually it is not so much the accelerated child with which we are concerned, for the term "accelerated" in this usage implies an intellectually above average child or gifted child who is working at his full capacity through an academically enriched course which is designed to meet his special needs. Such a child is a rara avis for there are but few schools for the deaf in the United States today which make any special attempt to challenge that deaf child who has been blessed with anything beyond an average intelligence. Generally such an exceptional child is slowed down by the prevailing curriculum of the school to that degree of mental inertia that precludes any marked tendency toward intellectual ingenuity or creativeness. In short he frequently becomes what we are pleased to call a good citizen. The occasional intellectual maverick or nonconformist is either drummed out of school before his graduation, or else he is stoically tolerated by the school authorities until he can get his diploma and take his leave. Both "the good citizen" and the "maverick" have not been truly accelerated children but potentially accelerated. This paper then shall consider the problems of potentially accelerated children, particularly those who are congenitally deaf and those with an early onset of deafness,

Children with late onset of deafness are potentially accelerated, too, but they should offer less difficulty educationally because they are usually blessed with language having had hearing prior to their becoming deaf. They are, incidentally, always in grave danger of becoming mavericks if left unchallenged by lessons. An enriched program of studies, however, is usually the answer to the academic rest-

lessness of such children. Interestingly enough, these children occasionally learn without a teacher and some even in spite of a teacher. Except for the general adjustment problems they sometimes create, the late onset deaf children cause little trouble of an academic nature if they are sufficiently challenged, and they are frequently even a joy to the average classroom teacher. Educationally speaking then the late onset deaf child is not our great problem; therefore, our attention and our subsequent remarks will be wholly centered upon the congenitally deaf child and the early onset deaf child.

The perennial question

Over the years countless teachers and school administrators have put the question to us, "How may we prepare our boys and girls for Gallaudet College?" The question is simple enough; however, the answer is much more complex than the customary reply, "Follow your State syllabus." A number of extremely fundamental points must be considered and studied before a truly adequate program of college preparation for deaf children may be inaugurated. These considerations must involve a general reassessment of our attitudes, aims, and procedures as teachers, supervising teachers, principals, and superintendents of schools for the deaf. The purpose of such reassessments should not be just for the improved academic standards for exceptionally bright deaf children, but for all deaf children, those highly endowed intellectually and those less endowed.

The responsibility of preparation

There is an interesting point regarding that question, "How may we prepare our boys and girls for Gallaudet College?" Almost invariably this question is asked by advanced department teachers. Seldom is the question asked by intermediate teachers, and never is it asked by primary teachers. Does this mean that the onus or responsibility of preparing boys and girls for higher education rests solely upon the advanced department of a school for the deaf? The answer

is an unequivocal no.

Primary children who are intellectually endowed may and should be college pointed, guided, and directed from their first years in school. It is in these primary years that capable deaf children should receive their first intellectual acceleration. Then the responsibility for their preparation for higher education should become that of the intermediate department, and finally that of the advanced department wherein there should be a "rounding off" for those boys and girls who plan to terminate their education with graduation and an academic bridging for those other young people who plan to continue their schooling at Gallaudet College.

No, the responsibility for preparing young deaf people for "out in world" or for college is not a responsibility peculiar to the advanced department of any school. The business of preparation for life or for college is a three-layer cake, and is the business of the whole school

and not just any one part of it.

Ideally, too, and a matter for the future is that the standards of the majority of our schools for the deaf may someday be significantly raised so as to be able to eliminate the necessity for a Gallaudet preparatory year, and thereby reduce the generally required period at Gallaudet College from the traditional 5 years to the more common

4-year collegiate period exacted of young hearing people. Before this, however, and more immediate concerns are possible, we must take a candid look at our current basic philosophy of education for the deaf.

The obstacle of primary school mindedness

Perhaps the first obstacle we may consider in the matter of preparing boys and girls for life as well as for higher education is the fact that our school curriculums and our general perspective of teaching deaf children is primary school oriented. Most trained teachers of the deaf at all levels-primary, intermediate, and advanced departments, are by nature of their training primary school minded. It will be recalled by almost all such teachers that the vast bulk of their respective training periods was devoted to the all-essential business of learning how to teach primary babies the basic elements of speech, the elementary structure of language, and the fundamental concepts of numbers. The intermediate methodologies of composition, arithmetic, and social studies were probably touched upon but briefly. On the other hand, the instructional procedures involved in the subjects of algebra, advanced composition, and literature were generally touched upon not at all.

Now without disrespect for the many fine training centers and training teachers, we have inadvertently oriented our teachers into a primary-minded view of the deaf child, be he 8 years of age or 18. Consequently, the limitations of the primary baby have too frequently been superimposed upon our understanding of the blossoming young deaf adult. Hence we find in many schools, the 12th grade class seated in the semicircle typical of a primary classroom, enduring the deadening repetitions of inconsequential details simply because patient repetition is the essence of effective instruction. Repetition on the more advanced levels should be geared to the maturity of the children through the use of varied illustrations and examples. This regard for their maturity will do much to eliminate the boredom of which older

boys and girls complain.

There cannot be, and there will not be, any marked evidence of intellectual growth on the part of deaf adolescents until their physical maturity and potential intellectual maturity are recognized by a more elevated procedure of instruction accompanied by a more appreciative attitude concerning their approaching adulthood. The advanced department should make a "clean break" with the intermediate with regard to both teaching methodology and attitude. By the same token the intermediate department should make a "clean break" with the primary, in order that the children will not only see the difference in lessons brought about by their advancement, but they will feel the difference in atmosphere, as well. With growth should come not only more advanced lessons, but new and greater responsibilities with new and greater emphasis upon self-respect born of self-reliance.

Deaf children are extremely desirous of pleasing; consequently, their response is largely a reflection of what is expected of them. If we as teachers expect little, they as deaf children will oblige and do little. This sums up, to some extent, the serious problem of primary school mindedness with which our American education of the deaf

is confronted today.

The obstacle of English

As to specific problems in the instruction of congenitally deaf children and early onset deaf children, the problem of language acquisition is the most persistent and troublesome. Many solutions have been advanced in the form of structuring devices, keys, and symbols. In some instances the problem of language has even become confused

with the acquisition of speech and lipreading.

It would seem that about everyone who has developed so much as a nodding acquaintance with the language problem of the deaf has shortly thereafter proposed a solution. Some of these solutions, however, have taken the unique turn of endeavoring to explain away the problem as one that is unsurmountable and of little consequence because of the "naturalness" of one language over another in regard to the deaf.

About 20 years ago, for example, a well-known psychologist discovered the deaf child and his perplexing problem of language acquisition. After a careful gathering of data, the psychologist concluded that the way to solve the problem of language was to move around it. He suggested in a nationally circulated book that the deaf child if left to himself—

* * * quickly develops a language of signs and gestures, a language that is quick, direct, and accurate, yet it is doubtful whether this language can ever be developed to express the abstractions and finer relationships which the written and spoken language can attain, and at any rate this sign and gesture language is restricted to a few people, for the hearing world does not understand it. Hence it becomes a necessity for the deaf person in a hearing world to learn a second language. He becomes a bilingual individual. His first or "mother tongue" is the language of signs and gestures. His second or learned language is the spoken-written language of the hearing world. Now the learning of this second language is evidently a slow and painful process, as the whole history of education of the deaf bears witness.

This same psychologist continuing refers to the language of signs and gestures as the "natural" language of the deaf. Therefore, for the deaf, "this second language [English] always appears to be a little 'foreign.' "² Finally, the author sums up with a suggestion which should let all of us teachers of the deaf off the embarrassing hook of language.

For most deaf children the emphasis should be upon the motor, the mechanical, and the concrete. Make the core of their education center around the concrete and the mechanical. Make the learning of language subsidiary and ancillary to making, building, and doing. Only for a few should the academic curriculum be followed. Shopwork, home economics, trade training of all kinds, dramatics, gardening, and the like, these would be the main "subjects," and reading and writing and arithmetic would be subsidiary and incidental aspects of the main "course." ³

This proposal, it should be remembered, was made by a nationally known psychologist who had an abundance of data but a smattering of understanding. Unfortunately, too, this negativistic thinking was disseminated throughout the teacher-training centers and universities of the Nation, so that even today we hear strange echoes of sign language being the "natural" language of the deaf. In order to eliminate this dangerous fallacy, we might endeavor to define this nebulous term

² Ibid., p. 176. ³ Ibid., p. 179.

¹ Rudolf Pintner et al., "The Psychology of the Physically Handicapped," p. 175.

"natural language" and think of it more precisely in terms of the deaf child and his problem of language acquisition.

Natural language is that language to which a child is initially introduced at any time from birth and to which he is consistently and persistently exposed through the first 6 years of his life.

If this definition is valid, a congenitally deaf or an early onset deaf child's natural language may be French, Russian, the sign language, or English depending upon whichever language he is permitted to see. It is this last word "see," incidentally, that brings us to our next consideration and reassessment.

The obstacle of lipreading

The oral method has gained steadily over the last 60 years as the most practical and effective procedure for educating deaf children. Strangely enough, however, over these many, many years there has been little measurable evidence of any improved academic achievement for the generations of deaf children who have been schooled in the oral atmosphere. Achievement in speech and lipreading today is not much more outstanding over what it was 20 or 25 years ago. Language development is similarly no better than it was. Language errors still persist in the English of our brightest congenitally deaf and early onset deaf children despite our efforts to structure and objectify the

subtleties of syntax.

It would truly seem that a kind of achievement plateau has been reached insofar as progress in the actual business of teaching deaf children is concerned. There is, also, a pervading sense among many fine oral teachers that something is wrong. Certain misgivings have been voiced concerning our old teaching motto "Talk, talk, talk to the deaf child." In following this prescript the assumption is that the repetitive impressions of the lip movements representing oral language will indelibly impress themselves on the mind of the deaf child so that he will reflect the oral language in his own speech and written English. This, of course, is precisely what occurs, yet we as teachers of the deaf do not like the results. Something is obviously wrong. Let us, therefore, analyze momentarily the problem offered by our long-established rule of "Talk, talk, talk to the deaf child," and find out wherein our error lies, if there be an error.

We as educators of the deaf know that the most expert adult deaf lipreader does not grasp from the lips every word which is spoken. The oral language pattern which the lipreader sees is a series of key words punctuated with verbal gaps; therefore, it is necessary for him to "fill in" the elliptical portions with his own vocabulary and to reconstruct the sentence pattern from his own mature language sense. It is, as we all know, this schooled sense of intuition and ability to synthesize, coupled with a definite appreciation of syntax and a strong active

vocabulary that makes a good lipreader.

Now we may turn to the question of the congenitally deaf or early onset deaf child of 6, 8, or 10 years of age and ask, "What does he put into the gaps which occur in the oral pattern of language which he sees on the lips?" We know the little deaf child, unlike the expert adult lipreader, has neither language sense nor vocabulary. Consequently, the answer is that he puts nothing into the gaps, and having no concept of syntax he sees only a running pattern of broken English represented by the isolated key words which he may or may not identify. There-

fore, what the deaf child sees on our lips is not English, but a kind of

"pidgin" English.

Pursuing our motto of "Talk, talk, talk to the deaf child," we actually reinforce the broken patterns of oral English in the deaf child's mind. The child, then, in his speech and in his written language, through simple imitation, mirrors those language patterns in which we have so assiduously drilled him. As a result he pro-

duces what is unfortunately called deaf language.

Actually the problem is not a perplexing one, nor is it too peculiar when we consider that the deaf child's only avenue of learning is visual. We present him daily, day after day, with distorted language patterns through the non-English medium of lipreading and he reproduces the same distorted patterns in his oral and written English. It would appear that as an instructional medium, lipreading per se is not much better than the language of signs insofar as the development of English is concerned.

The answer to this matter would seem to rest in a more concrete, a more tangible medium of conveying language in order that the deaf child might see the full vocabulary and syntax of English as a work-

ing tool.

Re a more tangible English medium

The great positive factor, perhaps, that has given strength to the oral method languagewise has not been either the speech or the lipreading aspects of the method, but the simple fact that oral teachers have been forced by the limitations of communication to write upon the blackboard every idea they definitely wish to convey. Thus the language deficit thrust upon deaf children through the non-English medium of lipreading has to a small extent been made up to them. The reading required of the children has similarly helped.

The reading and writing exercises of the classroom, however, have not proven themselves sufficient to instill English as a ready tool for the intellect. The possible reason for this is that the number and consistency of such visual exposures necessary to sink the roots of language into the depths of the deaf child's consciousness are too few

and too sporadic.

The deaf child to learn English must see English not just in the classroom, but on the playground, in the gymnasium, in the dormitory, and at home. He must see English around-the-clock throughout the year and throughout the 12 to 14 years of his school life. To refuse him this experience of English, is to refuse him the oppor-

tunity for an adequate mastery of the language.

One of the most effective ways for conveying English to the deaf child is, of course, through writing. From the standpoint of practicality, however, a blackboard on the ball diamond or a pad and pencil in the swimming pool are not too advisable. An additional point against writing is in its relation to speech and lipreading. The act of writing frequently breaks the thought sequence and the chain of interest, for while the teacher turns to write on the blackboard, the child has lost the point and is figuratively "miles away."

A more practical medium for conveying the countless natural and incidental impressions of English is through the use of the manual alphabet or finger-spelling. It does not, of course, offer the fixed and unchanging English impression of writing, but it does offer the advantage of insuring sustained attention, for while the teacher speaks

orally, she may manually supplement the broken language pattern of lipreading with the complete language pattern of grammatical English. All the while the lipreading child gathers in with his peripheral vision the subtleties of English as they are orthographically spelled on the teacher's fingers. Every preposition and article is seen and each exposure reinforces some language rule which has been taught or which will be taught. Through this multiplicity of exposures, English may become the deaf child's "natural language" according to our definition. Through such opportunity both above-average and average deaf children may become accelerated children, but they must see English to do it.

Preparation for higher education

The academic chasm that exists between the average residential school for the deaf and the freshman year of college is recognized by all. To educators of hearing children the attempt to telescope a 2- or 3-year program of secondary education into the span of a single year is a little short of phenomenal, especially in view of the fact that the students are deaf. The college preparatory department at Gallaudet, however, has for a long time successfully approximated the senior year of high school, taught the basic college entrance subjects, and maintained a high level of academic achievement for its graduates.

Those young people who have failed "to make grade" have not been accelerated children; however, most of them had been at one time potentially accelerated children. The vast majority of them had not had through their years of schooling the all-essential opportunity and experience of seeing English; hence they did not have a "fighting chance" at Gallaudet. What has not been done in 12 to 14 years certainly cannot be done in 1. Counseling and guidance will not make up the difference, for the problem in most cases is simply based on a lack of language experience and its long-recognized attendant, language deficiency. The problem, our preparatory department teachers agree, is an educational one; not psychological. The young people who fail are usually well adjusted to their deafness, adept in communicating their ideas in sign language, adept in lipreading, fair in speech, but again quite inadequate in their use and understanding of English.

The college preparatory curriculum, or the training target for schools for the deaf, consists of elementary or intermediate algebra and plane geometry. In the area of science, the elective subjects of either physics or chemistry are available. English is organized as a twofold discipline, composition, and literature. The composition phase is a developmental course emphasizing not just the mechanics of language, but the more subtle aspects of writing, the thought processes, wherein rest the most basic problems of advanced composition. The literature phase of the English course stresses the figurative use of language, the function of such figures of speech as the simile, metaphor, and personification. The course in social studies includes some modern problems, civics, psychology, economics, and sociology.

In all of the subjects there is a consistent attack upon the problem of the "frozen mind," more politely termed the "literal mind." This

^{&#}x27;Irving S. Fusfeld, "A Cross-Section Evaluation of the Academic Program in Schools for the Deaf," Gallaudet College Bulletin No. 1, February 1954, p. 31.

matter of literalness, of course, is the most fundamental problem in the higher education of young congenitally deaf and early onset deaf

students.

The ultimate goal of the college preparatory department and its curriculum is to enable its graduates to come to grips with the studies of the freshman year which center upon the intellectually rich and thought-provoking fare of Plato's "Trial and Death of Socrates," the tragedies of Euripides, Virgil's "Aeneid" in translation, and similar selections.

Let us answer now the perennial question, "How may we prepare our boys and girls for Gallaudet?" by summarizing as follows:

The responsibility for preparing deaf boys and girls for higher education as well as for life begins in the primary years of schooling. During this period the simpler selections of our literary heritage; e.g., "Mother Goose Rhymes," "Aesop's Fables," and similar materials may be introduced, for it is in such reading that a deaf child's subsequent moral strength, imaginative power, and intellectual propensities find their first roots and growth.

The responsibility then for the continuence of this training for life and a possible higher education is next assumed by the intermediate department which continues to supply the children with heritage materials of poetry and prose. Those boys and girls who absorb their lessons with less effort than the others may receive an enrichment program of additional reading, discussion, and activity. These

are the accelerated children.

Finally the educative responsibility is carried into the advanced department of the school in which selected literature, history, world geography, general science, and elementary algebra are reflected in the daily compositions written by the pupils. Upon graduation such young people, the average as well as the above average, will unquestionably be educated for life—which education in turn will also serve as an extremely adequate preparation for any higher schooling they wish to pursue.

A reassessment of philosophy

All of this, however, is "the stuff of dreams" if we continue in our predominately primary school perspective of education of the deaf, if we fail to perceive the non-Englishness of lipreading as an instructional medium, and if we do not grasp the fact that a deaf child must see English around-the-clock if he is to make it a working tool for receiving and expressing thought. On the other hand, all of the positive thoughts we have considered may become realities, if we are ready to make some reassessments in our philosophy and some moderate changes in our methods.

Perhaps because we as educators of the deaf are in need of a specific dictum, a new principle of faith, a guide to work by, we may

some day agree and affirm that:

Our philosophy of education for the deaf child centers upon an implicit faith in the child to reach his maximal achievement through instructional procedures adapted to his specific needs with particular emphasis upon experience framed in visually perceptible English.

With some such philosophy, we may with more certainty meet the needs of all deaf children including our specific subject, the accelerated child.

WORKSHOP REPORTS

WORKSHOP I-PUPIL EVALUATION

(Leader: RICHARD LANE, principal, Florida School, St. Augustine) (Recorder: Mrs. RICHARD KEUG, Dallas, Pilot Institute, Texas)

A well-attended workshop in pupil evaluation, after an introduction that indicated we had an excellent cross section, both positionwise and geographically, indulged in a spirited discussion on the following points:

1. Text interpretation

(a) Achievement tests.—Generally speaking, the Stanford achievement test is most widely used throughout the schools for the deaf in our Nation. The vast majority administer this test annually, during the month of May. Several schools did indicate the Metropolitan was given as a supplementary test, but it was stated that the tests were not compared with each other. Several have investigated the California achievement test, and some are planning on adopting it next year. It was the consensus of opinion that testing should be done in a familiar situation, administered by a person on a supervisory level, to attain a constant pattern of delivery from year to year. Several school representatives said that their school psychologist administered the exam, but felt that this was a duty of the academic staff, mainly because a psychologist is more valuable when he is less entangled in the complexities of the academic program. It was pointed out that it is wise to conduct a training period for those administering the tests.

(b) Intelligence tests.—In general, these were administered by trained staff psychologists, or given individually by a trained staff member. Upon entrance each child should be given a complete psychological test, with subsequent tests being given periodically to evaluate the student. The Nebraska Hiskey, Grace-Arthur, Merrill Palmer and the Leiter-International performance scale are administered to preschool and primary children, with the Wechsler, or U.I.S.C. administered to students above this level.

(c) Aptitude tests.—In the majority of schools, aptitude tests have fallen into the realm of vocational rehabilitation, but it is recommended that more schools should attempt to do more evaluating of their students' aptitudes. It was suggested that when the results of the Geist picture interest inventory are available, it could be added to an additional selection of aptitude tests, and a clearer aptitude evaluation of the students could be made.

It is felt that copies of all above test results should be in the file of the supervising teacher's office, and she in turn should discuss these with the teachers when the necessity arises.

2. Reporting to parents

It was ascertained that formal report cards were not used in the primary level, but instead, first letters, then progress reports were sent to the parents, approximately every 9 weeks.

Formal report cards were used both in the intermediate and advanced departments, and a need for simplicity of form was noted. Most schools send not only an academic report, but a vocational and dormitory report. Generally speaking, the ABC method was used,

but some use a numerical method. It is recommended that all reports should clear through the supervising teacher, and possibly the principal's office before being released to the parents. Generally speaking, all correspondence was cleared through the supervising teacher's level, and in many cases, the principal's level, and in one isolated case,

the superintendent's level.

Parent conferences were more frequent in preschool interviews, and early years of primary life. However, it was felt there was a great necessity for increasing these conferences during intermediate and upper grade levels. It was stressed that in all conferences the administration should discuss freely, sincerely, and openly, the academic evaluation of the student.

3. The basis for classroom placement

It was felt that the most salient points for placement were first, the teacher's recommendations, and secondly, the yearly achievement tests, particularly the reading section. Other important factors were the age of the student and the years they had been enrolled in that school.

It was recommended that each individual operating on the supervising teacher's level, or above, should buy a well-organized filing system, have at their fingertips a constant running inventory, covering the child's school life in every area, thus enabling those in a supervisory capacity to make an accurate and prompt pupil evaluation at any given time throughout the year.

WORKSHOP II—TEACHER EVALUATION

(Leader: Miss Frances Phillips, principal, Kendall School)

(Recorder: Mrs. Harriett Gough, supervising teacher, Kendall School)

Discussion began with a survey of prevailing methods of evaluations used by the schools represented in the group.

1. Schools under civil service were required to rate periodically

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- (a) Performance.
- (b) Attitudes. (c) Health.
- (d) Appearance.
- (e) Relationships with children, other teachers, and parents.

(f) Progress of the class.

The teacher was required to sign the report showing that he was aware of the points considered.

Questions arising from group concerning this procedure

(a) Was it used as a weapon or threat?

(b) Could it be objective?

(c) Did it affect salary increments?(d) What is the purpose of evaluating?

1. To upgrade the teachers.

2. To help staff members capitalize on their talents and strengths and improve instruction.

(e) Emphasizing need for teachers with visiting groups in the

school.

(f) Bulletins to education departments publicizing the work and giving information about training centers. (g) Programs using deaf children to acquaint public with them— Television demonstrations.
 Service club programs.
 School and church programs.

AFTERNOON SESSION-IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Problems confronted in schools with service programs

1. Lack of educational requirements:

(a) Should be education majors or elementary majors.

2. Teachers unable to do adequate classroom work if required to take courses outside schoolday.

3. Teacher shortage forces schools to accept inferior teachers.
4. Recruiting teachers from public school without enough emphasis on background of elementary education, personality, knowledge of language, adaptability, and purpose.

5. People coming in with preconceived ideas and overconfidence,

too rigid to adjust to new situation.

6. Children subjected to untrained teachers.

Methods of recruiting teachers

1. University contacts, cooperative screening.

2. Financial provision for teachers who wish to take a year's leave to get their training.

3. Talks to high school and college groups to encourage students

to choose work with the deaf.

4. Exposing high school students to the program by allowing them to help in routine parts of the program.

Conference method, between supervisor and teacher

1. Discussion of characteristics of a poor teacher and effective teacher.

2. New people called in to orient them to experiences they may

expect.

3. Description of a helping teacher in some schools who carries no administrative responsibilities and is not expected to rate teachers as a supervising teacher must.

The group felt that those on the administrative staff had definite responsibilities in improving the performance of teachers by—

1. Recognizing strengths.

2. Maintaining positive approach.

3. Being specific in dealing with weaknesses and difficulties.
4. Analyzing the teacher's position in relation to the whole school structure.

Workshop III-The Accelerated Child

(Leader: Armin Turechek, principal, California School, Riverside) (Recorder: James A. Hoxie, principal, Washington School, Vancouver)

Definition of the gifted child: The child, through psychological evaluation, that shows an IQ of 130 or up.

Also to be included is the child whose communication in language is superior, but whose IQ does not range to 130, but perhaps to 115.

The problem to resolve is how to break away from being "primary minded" and to accelerate our preschool and primary programs to the

point of showing greater gain.

Suggested ideas were to keep the gifted pupils with their peers in their progression on academic work; to gear instruction to their level of achievement; to group and regroup according to their academic achievement.

To arrange schedule so that more time could be devoted to enriching their experiences; to motivate the pupils' desire to go to college.

The question of what is an enriched program was asked of this group. Below are some of the ideas suggested which might pertain

to this much used expression.

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In addition to the gifted pupil's regular program, he should be required to do added outside work. This outside work to include library reading, with book reports; reference work, projects, and accelerated mathematics work. Included with his regular work, a visual aids program which would give him a constant challenge to seek more information.

Parent education was felt to be very important in the total makeup of the child. Too much emphasis has and is placed on the nonverbal approach to the child. This was also felt to be true of many teachers. Strong emphasis should be placed on the verbal approach to the child from his earliest days. The gifted child wants to communicate, so our responsibility is to inform and educate the parent to this need.

Suggestions were given as to how to better arrange the school pro-

gram so as to benefit the gifted child.

One idea was to have all teachers teach the same subjects at the same period of the day. This would allow a second grade pupil to take third or fourth grade reading, if he were gifted in this area. This would follow through on all levels, as the case might be. Another was to get away from the grade strata idea and allow the teacher to cross grade lines. A final suggestion was to employ an adjustment teacher, or, as one termed it, a floating teacher to work with the gifted child outside of the regular classroom, but at the same scheduled time as the subject is being given.

The problem of grading was discussed, but no conclusions were

reached in this area.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 28, 1961

CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE $$\operatorname{DEAF}$$

9-11:30 a.m.

Preschool building dormitory—Business meeting. President: Dr. William J. McClure, presiding.

10:30 a.m.

Conference picture.

7 p.m.

Conference of executives and wives dinner. Randall's Chuck Wagon, 3170 Commercial SE.

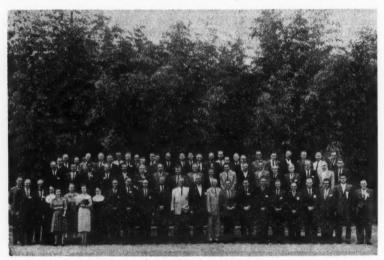
MINUTES OF BUSINESS SESSION, THE 33D REGULAR MEETING OF THE CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, SALEM, OREG., JUNE 28, 1961

I. CALL TO ORDER AND ROLLCALL

The first business session of the 33d regular meeting of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf was held in the preschool unit of the Oregon School for the Deaf, Wednesday morning, June 28, 1961. President William J. McClure called the meeting to order at 9 a.m. The roll was called and a list of those present is included with these minutes.

II. TRIBUTE TO THE MEMORY OF MR. THOMAS K. KLINE, SUPERINTENDENT, ILLINOIS SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF

The president asked the members to stand for a moment of silent tribute to the memory of their departed colleague, Thomas K. Kline, who died June 8, 1960, while serving as superintendent of the Illinois School.



Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Salem, Oreg., June 1961

III. APPROVAL OF MINUTES OF PREVIOUS MEETING

It was moved by Mr. Roth, seconded by Dr. Quigley, and carried, that the minutes of the meeting of the Executive Committee of the Conference of Executives, held at Northwestern University, April 7, 1960, be approved as circulated, and be filed as a part of the minutes of this meeting.

IV. INTRODUCTION OF NEW MEMBERS

The following were introduced as new members of the conference: Mr. Jack Brady, newly appointed superintendent of the West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and Blind; Mr. George H. Thompson, newly appointed superintendent of the Nebraska School for the Deaf; Dr. Richard Krug, director of the Dallas Pilot Institute for the Deaf, and Miss Helen O'Donnel, superintendent of the Scranton Oral School of Scranton, Pa.

V. APPROVAL OF PROXIES, QUALIFICATION OF ASSOCIATE MEMBERS AND GUESTS AND RECOGNITION OF HONORARY MEMBERS

The following individuals were qualified officially to represent their respective schools in the business sessions, the superintendent being absent, and the secretary having in hand a written proxy in each instance:

Mr. James Little, Western Pennsylvania School.

Mr. Arthur Yates, Illinois School.

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Mr. Edward Pearson, Virginia State School, Hampton.

Mr. Roy K. Patton, Alabama School.

Mr. Paul McLelland, Virginia School, Staunton.

Dr. Edgar Lowell, John Tracy Clinic. Mr. Donald Kennedy, Ontario School. Mr. William Woodrick, Mississippi School. Mr. Kendall Litchfield, New York School.

Assistant superintendents and principals who were present were qualified as associate members for the 33d regular meeting, and their

names are listed as a part of these minutes.

Two honorary members, Dr. Powrie V. Doctor, editor, American Annals of the Deaf, and Mr. John Gough, director of Captioned Films for the Deaf, were present.

VI. ELECTION TO HONORARY MEMBERSHIP

It was moved by Dr. Schunhoff, seconded by Dr. Tillinghast, and carried, that Dr. Elwood Stevenson, retiring superintendent of the California School for the Deaf, Berkeley, be elected to honorary membership.

It was moved by Mr. Thompson, seconded by Mr. Arthur Myklebust, and carried, that J. W. Jackson, retiring superintendent of the Nebraska School for the Deaf, be elected to honorary membership.

VII. PRESIDENT'S REPORT

President McClure submitted no official report, however, he stated that the Conference of Executives was now classified as a tax-exempt organization.

VIII. TREASURER'S REPORT

The treasurer's report was read. It was moved by Dr. Quigley, seconded by Dr. Galloway, and carried, that the report be received and filed as a part of the minutes of this meeting.

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IX. MINUTES OF MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, WASHINGTON, D.C., JANUARY 26, 1961, AND SALEM, OREG., JUNE 26, 1961

Copies of these minutes were distributed to all members and are included in these minutes.

X. LEGISLATION REPORT

Dr. Marshall Hester made a brief report on U.S. Senate bill 336. He stated that Senate bill 336 had passed the Senate, and he urged that members of the conference contact their Congressmen to get action. He also indicated the slow progress was due partially to the Federal aid to education controversy. He also proposed that a wire be sent to the Honorable Edith Green, from Oregon, urging her to support this bill. The membership concurred, and the secretary was directed to send such a wire. Dr. Hester also pointed out that the omnibus bill was being supported by CEC.

XI. EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Dr. Edgar Lowell reported that his committee had few requests for research from the conference. He stated that several poorly planned student research projects were sent to the committee for approval and were screened out. He felt that this was one important function of the committee.

He asked whether the conference wanted this committee to take the initiative to get important projects underway. It was the concensus of the group that the committee should initiate research.

Dr. Lowell felt the work of this committee should be publicized more and that the conference should refer research requests to the committee for appraisal.

XII. PARENT EDUCATION

Dr. Doctor stated that parent kits were to be sent out in the fall instead of the spring, and they would be sent out with the Annals questionnaire. He also said that due to the fact that schools helped in printing, these kits were financially self-supporting. The number to be printed this year is 6,000.

XIII. PUBLIC RELATIONS

Mr. Ambrosen, chairman of the public relations committee, reported that a new brochure, describing the functions of the conference of executives, had been printed at the Maryland School for the Deaf, at a cost of approximately \$100 for 15,000 copies. He also stated that the brochure would be reprinted every 3 years. Brochures can be obtained from the Annals' office free of charge, upon the payment of postage. Mr. Ambrosen requested that members suggest additions or changes to be made in the new edition. Mr. Ambrosen was commended for the brochure.

XIV. AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF AND OTHER BUSINESS CONCERNING THE ANNALS

Dr. Powrie V. Doctor, editor, American Annals of the Deaf, gave a short oral report. Minutes of the January meeting of the joint advisory committee of the American Annals of the Deaf were distributed to all members and are included in these minutes. Dr. Boatner, chairman of the joint advisory committee of the Annals, reviewed briefly the annual meeting held in Washington on January 26, 1961.

Dr. Doctor pointed out that income exceeded expenses for the 1960 fiscal year by over \$600. He also spoke of the great numbers of untrained teachers noted in statistics. He thanked Dr. Brill, president of the convention, for the Addressograph, which was a great help in mailing. He further thanked the conference for the Thermo-Fax

which saved time in the very busy Annals' office.

XV. REPORT ON CAPTIONED FILMS

Mr. John Gough explained in detail the proposed arrangement for the Annals to serve as an agency through which the film companies could negotiate for release of film, rather than through an agency of the Federal Government. The executive committee had approved of the Annals serving this function on a year-to-year basis. Because of changing circumstances the arrangement was never carried out.

Mr. Gough also stated that his agency was hiring the Annals to do film spotting which is a process leading to captioning. He reported that 100 prints will soon be in circulation. Each film costs about He stressed the need of more funds and that strong pressure will need to be brought to bear to get an adequate budget for a bigger

volume of film.

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He reported that future programs which are in mind are adult education films, and production of film to meet the needs of the deaf. He reported that a grant had been received to do a study on visual aids, and requested the cooperation of all in answering a questionnaire to be forthcoming.

Mr. Gough suggested that the conference appoint a special advisory committee on visual aids. He felt that this committee then could be

called to Washington, when necessary, for consultation.

It was moved by Mr. Roth, seconded by Dr. Schunhoff, and carried, that the president appoint such a committee.

XVI. REPORT OF CHAIRMAN OF TEACHER TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION COMMITTEE AND RELATED BUSINESS

Dr. Howard M. Quigley read the report of the teacher training and certification committee, which is included with these minutes.

Dr. Quigley reported an increased interest in obtaining conference approval of teacher training centers. He stated that there are now 33 centers, which is 5 more than a year ago.

Applications for teacher certification reached 199 this year; this

being a substantial increase.

Chairman Quigley reported that a questionnaire had been prepared for reevaluation of training centers. This questionnaire will go out in the Annals mailing in October.

Dr. Quigley submitted the following resolution and moved that it

be adopted:

It is increasingly evident that we need a form of credentials issued by the conference to recognize professional standing in our field for those who have supervisory and/or administrative positions. In view of this need it is recommended that the teacher training and certification committee be authorized to proceed with a study to accomplish this objective and to submit a report and recommendation to the next meeting of the conference at Austin, Tex., in April 1962. The motion was seconded by Mr. Stelle and carried.

XVII. DR. FUSFELD IN REFERENCE TO PAPERS GIVEN AT CONFERENCE MEETINGS

Dr. Fusfeld had suggested by letter that valuable professional papers given at meetings of the conference receive limited distribution as they appear only in the minutes. It was suggested that the Annals print more of these papers. The cost factor in printing was discussed. It was the consensus of the group that a thorough study of the printing of the Annals should be done in hopes that some economy procedures could be used, so more such papers could be printed. Dr. Fusfeld's suggestion was referred to Dr. Boatner, chairman of the Annals committee, for study.

XVIII. ACCIDENT INSURANCE

The Continental Casualty Co. proposed that the conference consider a program of accident insurance endorsement through which schools could participate. After a lengthy discussion, Dr. Graunke moved, Dr. Hester seconded, and the motion carried, that the secretary be instructed not to endorse any one company, but to certify to any company the membership list of the conference, if requested.

XIX. PLANS FOR FUTURE MEETINGS-DR. HUGO F. SCHUNHOFF

Dr. Schunhoff reminded the membership that the next meeting of the conference would be April 1-6, 1962, in Austin, Tex. The head-quarters would be at the Terrace Motor Motel, 1201 South Congress Avenue, Austin, Tex. A tentative program indicated an interesting and worthwhile meeting.

XX. ELECTION OF MEMBERS TO EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The term of office of Dr. Cloud, of the New York School for the Deaf, and Dr. George T. Pratt, of the Clarke School for the Deaf, members of the executive committee, expired. Dr. Richard Silverman, of Central Institute for the Deaf, St. Louis, Mo., and Mr. Bruce Siders, of the Michigan School for the Deaf, were elected, their terms to expire July 1, 1964.

XXI. GALLAUDET COLLEGE

Dr. Elstad, Dr. Detmold, and Dr. Roy appeared before the conference to discuss admission procedures, financial arrangements with parents and students, and dropouts. The college is preparing to publish and get into the hands of the schools, materials which will aid the administration in counseling candidates and their parents concerning financial arrangements and other requirements of the college.

XXII, REPORT OF THE RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

Mr. Joe Demeza, chairman, was absent, so Mr. Edward Reay reported for the committee. The following resolution was submitted:

Resolved, That the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf in its 33d regular meeting express its gratitude to Superintendent Marvin Clatterbuck, his staff, and the Oregon State Board of Control, and all who have been concerned with the success of the 40th biennial meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and the 33d regular meeting of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf at Salem, Oreg., for their services and gracious hospitality, and that this resolution be spread on the minutes of this meeting, and that copies of said resolution be sent to Mr. Clatterbuck, Gov. Mark O. Hatfield, and the chairman of the Oregon State Board of Control.

Joe Demeza, Chairman. Edward W. Reay, Acting Chairman. Virgil W. Epperson, Member. Ben E. Hoffmeyer, Member. John Klein, Member.

XXIII. ACCREDITATION OF SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

Dr. Galloway reported as chairman of a committee appointed by Dr. Hester in 1957 that criteria to evaluate school programs for accreditation had been proposed at the Northampton meeting.

Dr. Hester moved, Mr. Roy Parks seconded, and the motion carried, that the president reactivate the committee, or appoint a new one for further study, and have this committee report at the 1962 meeting in Austin, Tex.

XXIV. ADJOURNMENT

There being no further business, the Conference adjourned sine die at 5 p.m., Wednesday, June 28, 1961.

Respectfully submitted.

BEN E. HOFFMEYER, Secretary.

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CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, EVANSTON, ILL., NORTH SHORE HOTEL, APRIL 7, 1960

I. CALL TO ORDER

The executive committee of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf met at the North Shore Hotel, Evanston, Ill., April 7, 1960, at 4:30 p.m., on the call of the president, William J. McClure.

Committee members present:

Dr. William J. McClure, Dr. Hugo F. Schunhoff, Mr. Stanley D. Roth, Dr. Daniel T. Cloud, Mr. Marshall S. Hester, Mr. Lloyd Harrison, Mr. Ben E. Hoffmeyer.

Committee members absent:

Dr. George T. Pratt, Dr. Sam B. Craig, Mr. C. E. McDonald. On request of the president, Dr. Powrie V. Doctor attended the meeting.

Mr. Roy M. Stelle was present to discuss constitutional change affecting terms of office.

II. HIGH STANDARD SET BY PAST PRESIDENT, MARSHALL S. HESTER

Dr. McClure expressed the feeling that the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf had had a very high standard set by Mr. Hester, past president, and stated that it would require the best efforts of all members of the executive committee in order to continue these high standards. Dr. McClure also expressed approval of Mr. Hester's precedent in actively consulting with the executive committee on all official business, and stated that he planned to continue this practice. He hoped members of the executive committee would feel free to send him their suggestions and advice at any time.

III. DISCUSSION, CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGE AFFECTING TERMS OF OFFICE

Mr. Stelle discussed with the executive committee the problem created if the new constitutional change affecting terms of office went into effect in 1961. The executive committee recommended that the proposed constitutional change affecting terms of office be deferred until possibly 1966, if adopted then. New officers going in for a 2-year term would be faced with a comparatively light program in connection with the convention in 1967, and would have 2 years to prepare a more pretentious conference program for 1968. It was agreed that the whole idea would be deferred.

IV. COOPERATION OF CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES ASKED BY GALLAUDET COLLEGE, INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF THE DEAF, 1963

Dr. Doctor conveyed the wish of Dr. Leonard M. Elstad, president of Gallaudet College, that a committee be appointed from the conference of executives to work with a joint committee to assist the college in sponsoring the International Congress on the Education of the Deaf in 1963. Dr. Cloud expressed the idea that the college

should outline specifically the part they wanted the conference of executives to play. It was the general opinion of the group that an outline, including all details, time, etc., be set up by the college, so that the conference committee would know of its responsibilities. It was suggested that the president write to Dr. Elstad and request this. It was also the opinion of the executive committee, that the appointment of the cooperating committee of the conference be made after receiving the outline of responsibility from Dr. Elstad.

V. RESEARCH

President McClure stated that the conference of executives had been requested to participate in a research project of Dr. Stephen Quigley of Gallaudet College. It was the opinion of the president that the conference of executives should use the research committee of the conference of executives, and designate this committee to work with the college on this project. It was further suggested that the new research committee appointed by the president, be composed of research minded members, so that they could evaluate research projects. It was the consensus of members present that research projects should be scrutinized closely before being endorsed by the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

VI. PROGRAM CHAIRMAN

The president suggested that the vice president also be the program chairman. It was also suggested that the office of vice president be changed to "president-elect and program chairman." It was brought out that this would have to be a constitutional amendment. The presi-

dent was to appoint a committee to consider this.

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The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf received invitations to meet in 1962 at the Arkansas School for the Deaf, Little Rock, the Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf, Pittsburgh, and the Texas School for the Deaf, Austin. After some discussion, it was moved by Mr. Harrison and seconded by Dr. Schunhoff, that the conference of executives accept the invitation of the Texas School for the Deaf for the 1962 meeting. The motion carried.

VIII. CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES MEETING, SALEM, OREG., 1961

The question was raised whether the conference of executives should meet prior to the meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. It was brought out that meeting prior to the convention required conference of executives members to be away for extended periods of time. It was suggested that the conference of executives meeting be scheduled simultaneously with that of the convention. It was further suggested that all conference meetings be so scheduled as to not conflict with important meetings of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf which superintendents should attend. It was understood the 1961 meeting would be primarily a business meeting. It was moved by Dr. Cloud that the conference of executives meet simultaneously with the convention adhering to the aforementioned schedule proviso; the motion was seconded by Dr. Schunhoff, and the motion carried.

IX. REQUEST FOR PHOTOSTATING MACHINE BY THE AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF

Dr. Doctor requested through the president that the conference of executives purchase a photostatic copying machine. Dr. Doctor brought out that this would save a greal deal of time, and that he could also give added services through the use of this machine. It was moved by Dr. Cloud, and the motion was seconded by Dr. Schunchoff, that the conference of executives purchase this photostating machine, the cost not to exceed \$400. The motion carried. The president and members present commended Dr. Doctor for his services to the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

X. ADJOURNMENT

There being no further business, the meeting was adjourned at 5:45 p.m.

Respectfully submitted.

BEN E. HOFFMEYER,

Secretary, Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

APRIL 22, 1960.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, OREGON SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, SALEM, OREG., JUNE 27, 1961

I. CALL TO ORDER

A meeting of the executive committee of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf was held in the office of the superintendent of the Oregon School for the Deaf, June 27, 1961. The meeting was called to order by Dr. William J. McClure, president, at 9 a.m.

Members of the committee present:

Dr. William J. McClure, Indiana School for the Deaf.

Dr. Hugo F. Schunhoff, California School for the Deaf, Berkeley.

Dr. Marshall S. Hester, New Mexico School for the Deaf.

Mr. Stanley D. Roth, Kansas School for the Deaf. Mr. Lloyd Harrison, Missouri School for the Deaf.

Mr. Ben Hoffmeyer, North Carolina School for the Deaf.

Members of the committee absent:

Dr. George T. Pratt, Clarke School for the Deaf.

Dr. C. E. McDonald, Jericho Hill School, British Columbia.

Dr. Daniel Cloud, New York School for the Deaf.

Dr. Sam B. Craig, Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf.

Also present, Dr. Powrie Doctor, editor, American Annals of the Deaf.

II. APPROVAL OF MINUTES OF EXECUTIVE MEETING, WASHINGTON, D.C., JANUARY 26, 1961

The minutes of the meeting held at Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C., January 26, 1961, were distributed prior to the meeting.

It was moved by Dr. Schunhoff, seconded by Mr. Roth, and the motion carried, to dispense with the reading of the minutes and to accept them as written.

III. CAPTIONED FILM PROGRAM

It had been requested that the American Annals of the Deaf serve as an agency through which the film companies could negotiate a contract to release films, rather than an agency of the Federal Government.

The executive committee, after discussing this with Dr. Doctor approved of the Annals serving this function on a year-to-year basis.

The committee, also, pointed out strongly that the contract should include a clause to release the conference and the Annals of any lia-

bility of any kind in case of film loss or damage.

The committee, also, wanted assurance that the compensation would be adequate to provide help in the Annals office so that the Annals office would not suffer as a consequence of this added function. The committee also felt that there should be some compensation for Dr. Doctor.

The committee directed the secretary to incorporate the following letter from the president of the conference to Dr. Doctor in the minutes as a part of the official record. This letter authorizes the editor to negotiate this agreement.

MARCH 15, 1961.

Dr. Powrie V. Doctor, Editor, American Annals of the Deaf, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.

DEAR POWRIE: After hearing from John Gough regarding the problems con fronting the captioned film program and after talking with both of you regarding the possibility of assistance from the conference of executives through the Annals office, I polled members of the executive committee for their opinions. As a result, this letter is your authorization to enter into an agreement to supply the necessary assistance to the captioned film program. There are a number of stipulations which various persons have suggested which I believe should be observed. These are:

1. The agreement should be entered into for a 1-year period with the understanding that the conference will be at liberty to withdraw from the arrangement

at any time after that if the operation proves unsatisfactory.

2. An entirely separate set of books should be kept for the captioned film

3. An annual report on the operations of the captioned film program should be made to the Annals' committee (which in turn reports to the executive

committee).

4. The arrangement should provide for enough income from the captioned film program to insure adequate secretarial help so there will be relief for the editor from minor responsibilities.

5. There should also be provision for some remuneration for you.

If some provision has been overlooked which you feel should be included for the protection of the conference and of the Annals office, will you please call it to our attention. We stand ready to assist you at any time.

Sincerely yours,

WILLIAM J. McClure, President.

cc: Conference Executive Committee.

Dr. E. B. Boatner, chairman, Annals Committee.

Dr. R. G. Brill, president, Convention of American Instructors.

Mr. John Gough, captioned film program.

IV. COUNCIL OF NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

It was pointed out that Dr. Cloud had been representing the conference and would continue to do so.

The president indicated that the conference had donated \$50 a year to this organization and requested that the executive committee consider continuing this donation. It was moved by Dr. Hester, seconded by Dr. Schunhoff and the motion carried to again make this donation.

V. RECRUITMENT OF NEW MEMBERS

The executive committee discussed inviting schools approved by the membership to become members of the conference. It was the consensus of opinion of the committee that this should be done. President McClure designated Mr. Lloyd Harrison and Mr. Ben Hoffmeyer to list prospective schools and submit them for conference approval at the regular meeting at Salem.

VI. HOUSEPARENT CERTIFICATION

It was the opinion of the executive committee that adequate time at Salem was not available for full and comprehensive discussion of this important item. The committee approved of the president's reactivating the committee and requesting that this committee report at the next meeing at Austin, Tex., in 1962.

VII. NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION OF DEAF-BLIND CHILDREN

The conference of executives has two members on this committee. The president, with the approval of the committee, reappointed Mr. Egbert Peeler of the North Carolina School for the Deaf at Raleigh and appointed Dr. Edward Tillinghast to serve on this committee to replace Mr. Fred Sparks, as representatives of the conference.

VIII. ACCREDITATION OF SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

The committee discussed the accreditation of schools for the deaf and concluded that it be submitted to the membership at Salem for full discussion. It was concensus of opinion of the committee that the membership should decide whether they wanted this to be further studied and reported on at Austin, Tex., in 1962.

XI. APPROVAL OF HONORARIUM FOR CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES BANQUET AT SALEM

A payment of \$25 was approved and the treasurer, Mr. Harrison, was directed to pay same.

X. WORKSHOP ON COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT THROUGH ORGANIZATIONS
OF AND FOR THE DEAF

A letter from Mr. Alan B. Crammatte to the president pointed out that two resolutions addressed to the conference were passed at the workshop held April 24–26 at Fort Monroe, Va. They were as follows:

Instruction in civic responsibilities

The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and the Alexander Graham Bell Association are informed that it is recommended that the schools for the deaf include in their curriculums a course on civic responsibility of the deaf, with particular emphasis on their duties and obligations to the organizations of the deaf.

Role of the professional organizations

The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf and the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf and the Council on Education of the Deaf are to be informed that the adult deaf endorse the concept of developing social services for the deaf as brought out by this workshop and that their cooperation is desired in developing a better understanding of our mutual problems, needs, and aspirations.

The committee directed the secretary to bring these resolutions to

the attention of the membership at the Salem meeting.

XI. DR. FUSFELD IN REFERENCE TO PAPERS GIVEN AT CONFERENCE MEETINGS

Dr. Fusfeld suggested through correspondence that valuable professional papers given at conferences receive limited distribution for they appeared only in the minutes. It was suggested that the annals print more of them. The cost factor in printing was discussed. It was the consensus of opinion that a thorough study of the printing of the annals should be done in hopes that some economy procedures could be used so more such papers could be printed.

XII. ACCIDENT INSURANCE

The Continental Casualty Co. proposed that the conference consider a program of accident insurance endorsement, through which schools could participate. The committee suggested that this be discussed at the general meeting at Salem.

XIII. CED MEMBERSHIP

President McClure informed the committee that Dr. Hester's term will expire July 1, 1961, as member of the CED. The president appointed Dr. Sam Craig as the new representative effective July 1, 1961. The committee endorsed this appointment.

XIV. JANUARY MEETINGS

A meeting of the executive committee was tentatively set for January 1962.

XV. ADJOURNMENT

There being no further business, the meeting was adjourned at 11:30 a.m.

Respectfully submitted.

BEN E. HOFFMEYER.

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Secretary, Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

MINUTES OF MEETING OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, WASHINGTON, D.C., JANUARY 26, 1961

I. CALL TO ORDER

A meeting of the Executive Committee of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf was held in the Library, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C., January 26, 1961. The meeting was called to order by Dr. William J. McClure, president, at 3:30 p.m.

Members of committee present:

Dr. William J. McClure, Indiana School for the Deaf.

Dr. Hugo F. Schunhoff, California School for the Deaf, Berkelev.

Dr. Daniel T. Cloud, New York School for the Deaf. Dr. Marshall S. Hester, New Mexico School for the Deaf. Dr. Sam B. Craig, Pennsylvania School for the Deaf, Pitts-

Dr. Edmund B. Boatner, American School for the Deaf, representing Mr. Roth.

Mr. Lloyd A. Harrison, Missouri School for the Deaf.

Mr. Ben E. Hoffmeyer, North Carolina School for the Deaf. Members of the committee absent:

Dr. George T. Pratt, Clarke School for the Deaf. Dr. C. E. MacDonald, Jericho Hill School, British Columbia. Mr. Stanley D. Roth, Kansas School for the Deaf (designated, Dr. Edmund B. Boatner as his official proxy).

Members of the conference also present:

Dr. Edward R. Abernathy, Ohio School for the Deaf. Mr. Lloyd A. Ambrosen, Maryland School for the Deaf.

Dr. Leonard M. Elstad, Gallaudet College.

Dr. Lloyd Graunke, Tennessee School for the Deaf.
Miss Frances I. Phillips, Kendall School for the Deaf.
Dr. James H. Galloway, Rochester School for the Deaf.
Mr. Joe R. Shinpaugh, Virginia School for the Deaf.
Mr. Nathan H. Harris, Horace Mann School.

Guest present:

Dr. Freeman McConnell, University of Tennessee.

II. APPROVAL OF MINUTES OF EXECUTIVE MEETING, EVANSTON, ILL., APRIL 7, 1960

The minutes of the meeting held at the North Shore Hotel, Evanston, Ill., April 7, 1960, were distributed. It was moved by Dr. Cloud, seconded by Dr. Schunhoff, and the motion carried, to dispense with the reading of these minutes and accept them as written.

III. CONFIRMATION OF INTERIM (BY MAIL) ACTIONS OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The following confirmation of interim (by mail) actions of the executive committee were presented for approval:

(a) Expense authorized for president to represent Conference

at the A. G. Bell meeting.

(b) Teacher training and certification committee authorized to issue certificate to graduates of Perkins program for training

teachers of the deaf-blind.

(c) Drs. Hester, Elstad, and Boatner approved along with the president to represent the conference in the CED with expenses authorized to attend the October 1960 organizational meeting. (No expenses, thanks to various schools and to Dr. Elstad.)

(d) Flowers for Tom Kline's funeral.

(e) Annual travel allowance not to exceed \$300 authorized for the office of president.

(f) Initial contribution of \$100 to CED treasury.

(g) Payment of \$100 approved to assist vice president (and program chairman) in attending meeting of executive committee.

(h) Amendment to minutes of the Evanston meeting, section XIII, page 4, to show approval of teacher training and certification committee plan to certify vocational teachers.

(i) Seattle program of education approved for conference

membership.

It was moved by Dr. Craig, seconded by Dr. Cloud, and the motion carried, to confirm the foregoing interim actions carried on by mail, of the executive committee.

IV. REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT REGARDING CED MEETING

Dr. McClure gave a short account of the organizational meeting held October 24–25, Washington, D.C. He stated that the officers elected were: Dr. S. Richard Silverman, president, Dr. Richard G. Brill, secretary, and Dr. William J. McClure, treasurer. He said members representing the Conference of Executives on the Council of Education of the Deaf, were: Dr. William J. McClure, Dr. Edmund B. Boatner, Dr. Leonard M. Elstad, and Dr. Marshall S. Hester. Dr. McClure reported that the conference had paid its dues of \$100 to this organization. President McClure stated that CED would prefer a bill which would include only the provisions of title I of the old S.J.R. 127, but would be willing to support a bill containing those

provisions of title II as well as title I. He also reported that Dr. Silverman had appointed a committee on legislation composed of Dr. George T. Pratt, Dr. William J. McClure, Dr. Richard G. Brill, and Mr. David Mudgett.

The next annual meeting of CED is to be held in Salem, Oreg., in

June 1961.

(a) Tax exempt status.—The president reported that he had received the original tax exempt documents from Dr. Hester and had forwarded them to the Gallaudet Library for deposit. This met with the approval of the members. A similar document had not been received from the State of Maryland. Mr. Ambrosen

was directed to investigate.

(b) Meeting with the National Association for Teacher Certification.—It was reported that Dr. Howard Quigley, chairman of the teacher certification committee had hoped that the above association might be of some help in certifying teachers of the deaf. Dr. McClure reported that he and Dr. Brill had made a personal visit to the office of the National Association for Teacher Certification. They found that this organization had nothing to offer the conference in the area of teacher certification.

(c) Rochester dinner meeting.—The president reported that a delightful dinner meeting was held in Rochester during the summer meeting of the Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf. Thanks were extended to Dr. Galloway for making

arrangements.

(d) Inquiry from the University of Washington regarding teacher training.—Dr. McClure reported that a letter was received and that he had assured them the conference would work with

them.

(e) Evanston minutes.—President McClure reported that the minutes were now being mailed out to all members. Copies were on hand for members present. It was moved by Dr. Schunhoff, seconded by Dr. Hester, and the motion carried, that the executive committee go on record as expressing thanks and appreciation to Dr. William J. McClure, superintendent of the Indiana School, the printing department, and other staff members of the school for the exceptional job done on printing the proceedings. It was moved by Dr. Boatner, seconded by Dr. Schunhoff, and the motion carried, that the extra proceedings be sent to the Annals for sale, and that all proceeds be kept by the Annals.

(f) Articles of incorporation deposited in Gallaudet library.—

The president reported that this had been done.

(g) Conference membership applications.—The president reported that the Seattle Day School and the Detroit Day School had applied for membership and seemed to meet the requirements. It was brought out that this was not a function of the executive committee, and that the conference had to officially approve schools for membership.

V. DISCUSSION OF CONFERENCE MEMBERSHIP QUALIFICATIONS

This was discussed and it was agreed that the qualifications would stay as they are. Further study was indicated, since the qualifications were not specifically known.

VI. REPORT OF THE TREASURER

Treasurer's report			
Bank balance July 1, 1960		\$2,	991.50
Receipts: 1960-61 conference dues			
Total bank balance and receipts		4,	631. 50
Disbursements:			
Wm. J. McClure expense to A. G. Bell Association meeting_	\$86.10		
Berterman's, flowers for Kline funeral	16.38		
Hugo Schunhoff, mileage, Romney to Washington, D.C.,			
and return, represent conference on S.J.R	12. 15		
West Virginia School, secretarial supplies and postage	70, 20		
2 bronze tablets, Dr. Stevenson and Dr. Myklebust			
Material for minutes, Evanston meeting			
Certificate of merit			
Telephone			
Postage and stamped envelopes			
Thermo-Fax copy machine for annals			
Thermo-Fax labels and tracing paper	8. 04		
Thermore a labels and tracing paper	0.01		
Total disbursements	807 15		807. 15
Bank balance, Dec. 31, 1960			824. 35
THE PRINCE AND 1000		0,	O= 11 00
Total		4,	631. 50

(Signed) LLOYD A. HARRISON, Treasurer.

VII. REPORT OF STANDING COMMITTEES

A. Action on recommendations of the American Annals Committee

It was moved by Dr. Cloud, seconded by Dr. Hester, and the motion carried, that the recommendations of the American Annals of the Deaf Committee be adopted and put into effect, these recommendations being as follows:

1. Authorization to set advertising rates at \$150 per page for in-

dividual rate and \$125 for yearly rate.

2. Authorization to raise Miss Waters' hourly rate of pay from

\$1.50 to \$1.75. This to be retroactive to January 1, 1961.

3. Authorization to print 20,000 more teacher-trainee brochures. The new editions to be sold for 25 cents each and in lots of 25 or more at 10 cents each.

4. Authorization to print 3,700 copies of the January issue, in-

stead of 3,400.

5. Authorization for editor to delete several items in the January

Annals questionnaire to reduce the cost of printing.

6. Authorization to award Dr. George Morris McClure the Edward Allen Fay Award.

B. Legislation

Dr. Pratt was absent, so no report was made.

C. Parent education

Dr. Clarence D. O'Connor being absent, Dr. Boatner acted as chairman and Miss Frances I. Phillips as secretary.

The following recommendations were made:

1. The parent education committee recommends to the executive committee that Annals funds be allowed for postage to continue to distribute sample parent packets free to those on the mailing list previously used by Dr. Doctor.

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ould ions 2. The parent education committee recommends to the executive committee that the next and subsequent parent packets be distributed in September of the school year, instead of June.

3. The parent education committee recommends to the executive committee of the conference that Annals funds not to exceed \$100 may be used for distributing approximately 1,000 parent

packets to otologists throughout the country.

4. The parent education committee recommends to the executive committee, that Dr. Doctor be given permission to explore the possibility of persuading a commercial publisher to print the booklet entitled, "Communication for the Deaf" (formerly included in the 1960 parent packet), as a paperback. This to be done with no cost to the Annals, the conference, or the convention.

It was moved by Mr. Ambrosen, seconded by Dr. Graunke, and the motion carried that the recommendations be adopted and put into

effect.

D. Public relations

Chairman Lloyd A. Ambrosen submitted a suggested brochure describing the function and aims of the conference of executives. It was well received and Mr. Ambrosen is to have it printed for later distribution.

E. Educational research

Dr. Edgar Lowell, chairman, reported that his committee plans to act as a clearinghouse for suggested research projects. It was suggested that future research projects be submitted to this committee for appraisal.

F. Teacher training and certification

Dr. Quigley, chairman, sent a letter and the following is a summary of its contents:

1. Mr. Ben E. Hoffmeyer had been appointed a member of the committee.

2. National Council for Teacher Accreditation had nothing to offer the conference.

3. Certification of teachers of deaf-blind now a reality if recommended by Perkins.

4. Boston School for the Deaf and Sunshine Cottage requested certification, but have not yet been surveyed.

5. Schools that have made overtures, but have not yet committed themselves to survey: Crotched Mountain, Houston University, Hunter College, and the University of Illinois.

6. Applications for certification are heavier than usual this

year.

7. Little response to vocational certification to date.

8. Working on reevaluation checksheet.

9. The Horace Rackham School and Oklahoma College for Women on provisional approval.

VIII. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REVISION OF DR. J. L. SMITH'S BOOK OF IDIOMS

Dr. Boatner reported some progress. He is investigating the possibility of O.V.R. financing it.

IX. REPORT OF THE MEETING OF THE INTER-AGENCY COMMITTEE

Dr. Daniel T. Cloud, representative for the conference and the convention, made a brief report and stated that another meeting was to be held in February.

X. AFFILIATION OF CONFERENCE WITH COUNCIL ON NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

It was moved by Dr. Hester, seconded by Dr. Craig, and the motion carried to continue the affiliation.

XI. REPORT ON COMMITTEE MEETINGS OF ASSOCIATION FOR AID TO CRIPPLED CHILDREN

Dr. Edmund B. Boatner represented the conference. Dr. Boatner made a brief report stating that the committee, sponsored by the Association for Aid to Crippled Children, was formed for the purpose of clearly defining speech, hearing, and language. The committee met in August, subcommittees were appointed, and are to meet again with the association at a later date.

XII. REPORT ON SALEM MEETING

Dr. Hugo F. Schunhoff reported that no program other than business is scheduled for Salem. Wednesday morning was suggested as the time of meeting. The time for the executive committee meeting in Salem was to be on Monday.

XIII. ADJOURNMENT

There being no further business the meeting was adjourned. Respectfully submitted.

Ben E. Hoffmeyer, Secretary, Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

Treasurer's report

Received from Stanley D. Roth and deposited in Fulton National Bank, May 19, 1960	\$3 , 035. 35
Disbursements: Mountain States Telephone & Telegraph (Hester) Indiana Bell Telephone (McClure) Western Union (Hester)	23. 27
	43. 85
Bank balance July 1, 1960 Receipts: 1960-61 conference dues (88)	2, 991. 50 1, 760. 00
Total, bank balance and receipts	4, 751. 50

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Treasurer's report-Continued

Treasurer's report—Continued	
Disbursements:	
William J. McClure, expenses to Alexander Graham Bell Asso-	
ciation meeting	\$86. 10
Berterman's, flowers for Kline funeral	16.38
Hugo Schunhoff, mileage, Romney to Washington, D.C. and re-	
turn, represent conference on S.J. Res. 127	12, 15
West Virginia School, secretarial supplies and postage	70, 20
Indiana Bell Telephone (McClure)	7, 04
American Annals of the Deaf, 2 bronze tablets, Dr. Stevenson and	
Dr. Myklebust	90, 000
Marquis Co., material for minutes of Evanston meeting	17, 65
Indiana School, stamped envelopes and postage	33, 80
Bond Press, Inc., certificate of merit	82, 91
Indiana Bell Telephone (McClure) re Kline funeral	4, 90
Indiana Bell Telephone (McClure)	8. 31
American Annals of the Deaf, Thermo-Fax copy machine	322, 42
Indiana Bell Telephone, long distance	13, 70
Postmaster, Indianapolis, business envelopes	23, 80
Thermo-Fax sales, labels and tracing paper	8. 04
Indiana Bell Telephone, long distance	9. 75
Council on Education of the Deaf, initial allotment to CED	100, 00
American Annals of the Deaf, annual support of annals	750. 00
Indiana Bell Telephone, long distance	6, 85
Hugo Schunhoff, expenses to attend conference executives meet-	0. 00
ing in Washington, D.C.	100, 00
Hugo Schunhoff, postage, master sets	6, 29
Indiana Bell Telephone, long distance-	12. 35
The Hoosier, printing, binding, envelopes, and postage for min-	12. 00
utes conference, Evanston	225, 00
Barton, Duer & Koch Paper, paper for brochures on conference	220.00
	129, 26
of executives William J. McClure, expenses to attend CEC meeting in Detroit	48, 60
	6, 25
Indiana Bell Telephone, long distance	47, 60
Indiana School, reimburse for business envelopes	3. 55
Indiana Bell Telephone, long distance	a. 00
Indiana School, reimburse for express charges mailing confer-	F 05
ence brochures	5. 65
Indiana Bell Telephone, long distance (outstanding)	2.95
Total	9 981 50
	2, 201. 30
Bank balance, June 14, 1961	2 500 00
Dank Dalance, June 14, 1901	2, 000. 00

LLOYD A. HARRISON, Treasurer.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE JOINT ADVISORY COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF, WASHINGTON, D.C., JANUARY 26, 1961

I. CALL TO ORDER

The first meeting of the newly organized joint annals advisory committee met in the Gallaudet College Library, January 26, 1961. (This committee replaces the annals advisory committee by change in the bylaws of the conference, item XLV., pp. 62–63, minutes of the 32d regular meeting, Evanston, Ill., bylaws revised, p. 123. The new advisory committee represents both the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf and the Convention of Instructors of American Schools for the Deaf.)

Dr. Edmund B. Boatner, chairman of the committee, called the meeting to order at 11 a.m.

Committee members present:

Representing the conference:

Dr. Edmund B. Boatner, American School for the Deaf. Mr. Ben E. Hoffmeyer, North Carolina School for the Deaf.

Dr. Wm. J. McClure, Indiana School for the Deaf. Dr. Hugo F. Schunhoff, California School for the Deaf, Berkeley.

Representing the convention:

Dr. Edward R. Abernathy, Ohio School for the Deaf. Dr. W. Lloyd Graunke, Tennessee School for the Deaf. Mr. Joe R. Shinpaugh, Virginia School for the Deaf. Dr. Powrie V. Doctor, editor, Gallaudet College.

Committee members absent:

Dr. Richard G. Brill, California School for the Deaf, Riverside (Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf).
Dr. Robert Frisina, assistant editor, Gallaudet College.

Members of the Conference also present:

Mr. Lloyd A. Harrison, Missouri School for the Deaf.
Mr. Lloyd A. Ambrosen, Maryland School for the Deaf.
Dr. Sam B. Craig, Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf.
Dr. Daniel T. Cloud, New York School for the Deaf.
Mr. James H. Galloway, Rochester School for the Deaf.
Dr. Marshall S. Hester, New Mexico School for the Deaf.
Miss Frances I. Phillips, the Kendall School for the Deaf.

II. APPROVAL OF MINUTES OF PREVIOUS MEETING

The reading of the minutes of the meeting of the American Annals of the Deaf held at Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C., January 20, 1960, was dispensed with, a copy having been mailed to each member of the committee previously, and distributed to all members of the Conference at the regular meeting, Northwestern University, April 1960.

editor.

III. FINANCIAL REPORT

Dr. Powrie V. Doctor, editor, presented the following financial report:

American Annals of the Deaf, statement of receipts and disbursements

Receipts:	
Subscriptions from schools	
Subscriptions from individuals	
Sale of single copies and back numbers	
Sale of reprints and books	
Sale of parent packets	1, 087. 71
Advertisements	
Withholding taxes and social security	620. 75
Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf: Subsidy\$750.00	
Bronze tablets 90 00	
Thermo-Fax duplicator322. 42	4 400 4
American Instructors of the Deaf:	1, 162. 43
Subsidy 2.000, 00	
Postage for parent packets 55.00	
Stencil cutting 270.00	
Teacher training brochures 317.00	
Total stating broadies 011.00	2, 642, 00
Office of Vocational Rehabilitation	0 094 00
Miscellaneous	
Total receipts	27, 007. 20
Disbursements:	
Checks returned 10, 00	
Printing 14, 984. 52	
Salaries (3) 4, 109. 61	
Clerical assistance 2, 778. 85	
Office supplies1, 327. 05	
Postage, express, communication 1, 016, 62	
Withholding tax and social security 823, 04	
Auditing the books 116, 79	
Bronze tablets 90.00	
Books and pamphlets purchased 391. 10	
Miscellaneous 717. 97	
Total disbursements	26, 365, 66
Gain for the year	
Gain for the year	011. 0
Recapitulation of cash:	4 904 4
(1) Opening bank balance, Jan. 1, 1960	4, 801. 43 27, 007. 20
Add 1960 receipts	
Total cash	
Less disbursements	26, 365. 66
Cash balance, Dec. 31, 1960	5, 442, 9
(2) Bank balance, National Bank of Washington (per statement,	
Dec. 31, 1960)	6, 820. 7
Less outstanding checks:	
No. 2198, Sister Mary Walter	3. 6
No. 2202, Intelligencer Printing Co.	1, 369, 12
No. 2203, Vivian Tasker	5. 00
Total outstanding checks	1, 377. 77
Cash balance, Dec. 31, 1960	5, 442. 9

IV. ORAL REPORT OF DR. POWRIE V. DOCTOR, EDITOR, AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE

Dr. Powrie V. Doctor pointed out the fact that the annals showed a gain of \$641.54. He indicated, however, that increased revenue was necessary to meet the ever-increasing rise in cost and increase in services rendered by the annals. He suggested an increase in advertising rates. The present rate being \$125 per page for individual rate, or \$75 for yearly rate.

1. Advertising rate increased.—It was moved by Dr. Graunke, seconded by Mr. Joe Shinpaugh, and the motion carried that the rate for individual rate be set at \$150 per page, or \$125 for yearly rate.

2. Miss Waters' salary raised.—Dr. Doctor stated that Miss Waters now received pay at the rate of \$1.50 per hour. He commended her work and suggested a raise. It was moved by Mr. Joe Shinpaugh, seconded by Dr. Abernathy, and the motion carried, that a 25-cents-

per-hour raise be granted, retroactive to January 1, 1961.

3. Teacher training brochure.—Dr. Doctor reported that 4,000 brochures were still on hand out of the 20,000 originally printed. He pointed out that six new teacher training centers had been accredited since the printing, and a mimeographed sheet listing the new centers had been placed in the brochures to bring them up to date. Dr. Doctor requested an opinion as to the future of this brochure when the present supply becomes exhausted. It was moved by Dr. Graunke, and seconded by Dr. Abernathy, and the motion carried that 20,000 more be printed when the present supply is exhausted, the revised brochure to be priced at 25 cents per individual copy, and that lots of 25 or more copies be priced at 10 cents each. This motion was made with the supposition that the project would be self-supporting.

4. Statistics in the 1961 Annals.—Dr. Doctor stated that there were about 225 teachers in training, which is more than ever before, and that part of this was due to the addition of teachers in training at Perkins Institute which had recently been accredited. There was an increase of approximately 1,200 pupils reported. He also pointed out that there were over 1,000 changes in teachers' names in the 1961 January Annals, and that this was very costly. These changes indicated the fact that more and more untrained teachers were entering the profession. He reported that 3,400 copies of the January Annals were printed last year, and that they were sold. He suggested an increase for 1961. It was moved by Dr. Schunhoff, seconded by Dr. Graunke, and the motion carried that 3,700 copies of the 1961 edition be printed.

5. World congress at Gallaudet in 1963.—The editor reported that he had been named coordinator of the world congress. He also pointed out that he was teaching a full 12 hours and that being editor of the Annals, too, was considerable work. This fact was brought out later in the presence of Dr. Elstad, and he made assurances that some adjustment in Dr. Doctor's teaching load would be made.

6. Increase in letters to the Annals.—The editor reported that there was an increase in letters coming to the Annals requesting informa-

tion and requesting publications.

7. Edward Allen Fay Award.—Dr. Doctor reported that the 1960 awards to Dr. Stevenson and Dr. Myklebust were very well received. He suggested the name of Dr. George Morris McClure of the Kentucky School, to be the recipient of the 1961 award. It was moved by

Dr. Boatner, seconded by Dr. Abernathy and the motion carried, that

this award be given to Dr. George Morris McClure.

8. C.E.C. meeting in Detroit and convention in Oregon.—Dr. Doctor brought up the fact that his travel allowance from the Annals of \$300 was not sufficient to enable him to attend both the C.E.C. meeting in Detroit and the convention in Salem, Oreg. This was discussed by the committee, and the consensus was in favor of the editor going to the Salem, Oreg., meeting.

9. Suggestions regarding the questionnaire for the January Annals of 1962.—The editor pointed out the increase in printing cost, and suggested several ways to cut the cost of printing the January Annals, such as combining the pages for pupils and teachers, eliminating vocational teacher's pay scale, and leaving out the hard of hearing.

(a) Pupil-teacher page: It was moved by Dr. Graunke, seconded by Mr. Shinpaugh and the motion carried, that pupil and

teacher information be put on one page.

(b) Hard of hearing: It was moved by Mr. Shinpaugh, seconded by Dr. Graunke and the motion carried, that the questions now asking how many are hard of hearing be eliminated and only the number enrolled be requested.

(c) Vocational teachers: It was moved by Dr. Abernathy, seconded by Dr. Graunke, and the motion carried, that the separate listing of the salaries of vocational teachers be eliminated.

(d) Hearing aids: It was moved by Dr. Graunke, seconded by Dr. Abernathy and the motion carried, that the information con-

cerning hearing aids be eliminated.

(e) Method of communication: It was moved by Dr. Graunke, seconded by Mr. Hoffmeyer, and the motion carried, that statistics concerning the method of communication outside the classroom be deleted.

(f) Multiple handicapped deaf: It was moved by Mr. Hoffmeyer, seconded by Dr. Abernathy and the motion carried, that data concerning the multiple handicapped under pupils be

deleted.

(g) Methods of instruction in the classroom: Dr. Doctor reported that Dr. Greenaway of England suggested a change in this area for it left the wrong impression as to the methods in use in the United States. After a long discussion and numerous suggested changes, it was moved by Dr. Graunke, seconded by Dr. Abernathy and the motion carried, that the present method of listing be continued. It was suggested by Dr. Hester that a committee be appointed to work with the editor concerning this problem.

Note.—All motions recorded above constitute recommendations to the executive committee for the official action of that committee.

V. ADJOURNMENT

The meeting adjourned at 2:15 p.m. Respectfully submitted.

BEN E. HOFFMEYER, Secretary.

JANUARY 26, 1961.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TEACHER TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION

(Howard M. Quigley, chairman, Minnesota School for the Deaf)

Since time is limited, I shall make this report as brief as I can. The two major areas of concern to the committee are its training center and certification activities, and I shall devote most of my re-

port to them.

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We are indeed pleased to note the interest in obtaining conference approval of training centers, as evidenced by the inquiries we have received. Some get no further than just being inquiries, but others develop into requests for surveys and eventual approval by the conference. Since we met in April, in Evanston, the Emory University and the Atlanta Speech School, the Boston School for the Deaf and the Perkins School for the Blind, in cooperation with Boston University, the St. Joseph's School and Fontbonne College, the Oregon School and the Oregon College of Education, and the Sunshine Cottage and Trinity University centers have been surveyed by members of the committee. Plans are afoot to survey the proposed center at the Utah School for the Deaf some time this fall, and the Western Reserve University center. The Crotched Mountain School is working toward conference approval, and is making a strong effort to meet conference requirements.

The approval of the Perkins School program came only after a great deal of study. This has been going on since our meeting in Jackson, Miss. We are now serving as a certifying agency for teachers of the deaf-blind, since there appears to be no other agency to certify them. However, to certify teachers of the deaf-blind we had to know considerable about the preparation of the candidates. Our participation in this has, I believe, strengthened the positions of all of us.

Two centers, the Horace Rackham School and the Oklahoma College for women, have been on probationary status since the Evanston meeting. This action was taken because the committee members felt that in each instance full conference requirements were not being met. It

is hoped these two centers will regain regular status.

In the report I gave at Evanston I listed a number of items which the committee is considering, or which have been proposed. The principal item has to do with reevaluation of approved training centers. This is a recurring and perplexing problem. If certificates are to have real value we must know that trainees are getting at least the minimum training as established by the conference. Confidence in the integrity of the certificates granted by the conference must be maintained.

In an effort to do something about this the committee requested that the chairman and the editor of the Annals work up a questionnaire which would serve reevaluation purposes, and which would become an item in the Annals mailing in October. This has been done, and you directors of approved training centers will get the questionnaire this fall. Any comment you have about it, for or against, will be most welcome. We want to do this job as thoroughly as possible, with a minimum of time and effort on the part of the training center directors. Last fall we investigated the possibility of using the resources of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, in Washington, D.C., in an effort to place our teacher training program in the hands of an organization which would be recognized by colleges and universities throughout the country, and which would have reevaluation or followup services. However, after correspondence with the council's executive director, and after personal conferences between President McClure, Secretary Brill, and the executive director in Washington it was found that little would be gained in this procedure, and much might be lost, so the matter has been dropped. The continuing flow of requests coming to us from colleges and universities for conference approval can be interpreted to mean that in general there is confidence in our program, despite rather noisy criticisms coming from some quarters.

The list of conference approved training centers now totals 33, as

follows:

The Arizona School for the Deaf.
 The Arkansas School for the Deaf.

The John Tracy Clinic,
 Los Angeles State College.
 San Francisco State College.

6. Gallaudet College.7. Emory University.

Northwestern University.
 The Indiana School for the Deaf.

10. The Indiana School for the Deaf.
11. University of Kansas.

12. The Boston School for the Deaf.13. The Clarke School for the Deaf.14. The Perkins School for the Blind.

15. The Horace Rackham School (provisional).

16. Wayne State University.17. The Central Institute for the Deaf.

The St. Joseph's School for the Deaf.
 The New Jersey School for the Deaf.
 The Lexington School for the Deaf.
 The St. Mary's School for the Deaf.

22. Syracuse University.

23. The North Carolina School for the Deaf.

24. Oklahoma College for Women.25. University of Oklahoma.

26. The Oregon School for the Deaf.27. The DePaul Institute for the Deaf.

28. The Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf. 29. The South Carolina School for the Deaf.

30. Augustana College.

31. The Tennessee School for the Deaf.32. The Washington School for the Deaf.33. University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee.

This total is five more than the total we had on April 4, 1960.

Moving on to the certification program, since April 4, 1960, 199 applications have been processed. This brings the total number processed, since August 1955 to 692. There has been a substantial increase in the number processed this year as compared to previous

years. This year 206 letters and application forms were sent out to graduates in our various centers, as listed in the Annals. Just a few weeks ago Marvin Clatterbuck presented the five students in his program with their certificates, having made arrangements beforehand to obtain the certificates. This might be a good practice to follow in all the centers.

A new vocational certificate plan was adopted last year. There has not been much response to this so far. It is probably not too well known, and it is hoped that vocational teachers will make application

in greater numbers for this certificate as time goes on.

It is inevitable that trouble spots show up in the interpretation of policies established by the conference. The grandfather clause in the new requirements adopted in Colorado Springs is one of these. The committee makes a strong effort to achieve unanimity in its interpretations. Some individuals who protest the committee's rejection of their applications require considerable time and effort in the preparation of explanations for the rejections. At each of our meetings persons appear by appointment to discuss training center or certification problems.

An interesting new development has appeared on the horizon. You are all aware of the program getting underway at the San Fernando State College, to train administrators in schools for the deaf, beginning next February. The leaders in this movement desire to tie the program into the activities of our committee, and preliminary discussions have already been held. We shall have more information

on this later.

New information we are obtaining from approved training centers should make a revised edition of the brochure, so ably edited by Powrie Doctor, more comprehensive and useful. This brochure is an excellent consolidation of information for those interested in re-

quirements for training, and places to obtain such training.

In conclusion, just a few words about the committee. We have a new member, Ben Hoffmeyer, who was appointed last fall. We are pleased to have Ben with us, and we look forward to his participation in the committee's activities. As always, I thank most sincerely every member for his interest in the committee's work, especially so our secretary, who has the most work to do. The committee is indebted to a number of people in the profession who have offered suggestions and who have furthered the work of the committee in a variety of ways. Suggestions for the "good of the cause" are always welcome, and invited.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE TEACHER TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION COMMITTEE, SALEM, OREG., JUNE 24, 1961

The meeting was called to order by Howard M. Quigley, chairman, at 2 p.m. at the Oregon State School for the Deaf. The following members of the committee were present at the meeting: Roy G. Parks, John F. Grace, Hugo F. Schunhoff, Ben E. Hoffmeyer, and Richard G. Brill.

The following members of the committee were not present: George

T. Pratt and Irving S. Fusfeld.

The first order of business was another hearing for Mrs. Patrice Costello of the Crotched Mountain School for the Deaf in New Hampshire for approval of that school as a teacher training center.

Since the last hearing at Evanston an affiliation has been worked out with the Austine School in Vermont for added observation and practice teaching facilities. It was brought out that only one course, "History, Education and Guidance of the Deaf" is taught by J. Jay Farman of the Austine School and the two-semester course in "The Teaching of Language to the Deaf" is taught by Dr. Mildred Groht of Brattleboro. All the other courses are taught by Mrs. Costello. Dr. Groht's health may be such that she will be untable to continue to teach the language course and Mrs. Costello is leaving the program to study for her doctorate at Colorado State College. Therefore it was the opinion of the committee that this training program is not

adequately staffed.

It was also pointed out that the semester hours of credit for certain courses do not meet the minimums required by the Conference of Executives. For example, the two important courses of teaching speech to the deaf and teaching language to the deaf are for a total of 3 semester hours per year for each course. These should be 4 semester hours and preferably 6 semester hours each. The program appears to be overweighted in the field of audiology with 6 semester hours plus 3 more semester hours in lipreading in contrast to only 3 semester hours in language and 3 semester hours in speech. The methods of teaching elementary school subjects is only 3 semester hours while the Conference of Executives requires a minimum of 4 semester hours and a two-semester course. Mrs. Costello stated she did not give any special methods of teaching reading or elementary subjects to deaf children but lecturers on public school methods of teaching reading are brought in to teach this course.

It was the conclusion of the committee that the courses offered needed some adjustment before the program could be approved, as

well as a more adequate staff.

Chairman Quigley stated he would write to the Crotched Mountain School informing them of the reasons why their teacher train-

ing program was not approved.

By invitation Dr. Edgar Lowell of the John Tracy Clinic and assistant project director of the leadership training program in the area of the deaf to be offered by San Fernando Valley State College, appeared before the committee to explain this project. The question was raised as to whether the conference certification committee would put its stamp of approval on the program through certification of its graduates. This raised the fundamental issue of whether a new certificate for administrators and those in educational supervising positions in schools for the deaf should be issued. It was agreed that a motion would be presented at the business meeting of the Conference of Executives authorizing a study of this matter with a report and recommendations to be made at the conference meeting in Texas in April 1962. (This motion was subsequently adopted at the conference meeting.)

A discussion of the "grandfather clause" in the criteria for certification was held. It was moved by Hoffmeyer, seconded and passed, that the paragraph in the requirements that were adopted in Colorado in 1959, and which reads: "These requirements are to become effective September 1, 1959. Applicants for certification who completed their preparation to teach the deaf before this date will be evaluated on the basis of requirements previously in effect," should be eliminated from

any future printings of the criteria including a reprinting of the bro-

chure "Information for Prospective Teachers of the Deaf."

Chairman Quigley reported on a letter of inquiry received from Ball State College in Indiana relative to dropping their name from the Annals as a training institution to prepare teachers of the deaf. Ball State made no effort to meet the conference requirements for approval and no further action has been taken.

A report was made relative to possible teacher training at Sunshine

Cottage in Texas. No action was taken.

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A discussion was held pertaining to the teacher training program at the Atlanta Speech School, Inc., in affiliation with Emory University. Mr. Hoffmeyer had made the survey and reported on it, particularly referring to the points raised by Dr. Fusfeld in his memo to the members of the committee dated June 19, 1961. Mr. Hoffmeyer reported that, in spite of the apparent disproportionate amount of time devoted to audiology as listed in the catalog, that in fact this is not true and that all of the work required by the conference is included. Also he reported that in Atlanta the three departments of speech correction, audiology, and oral are in fact very clearly distinguished. Conference approval is only for those teachers completing the program to prepare teachers of the deaf in the oral department. It was moved by Parks, seconded by Grace, and passed that this training program be placed on the approved list.

It was moved by Brill, seconded by Parks, and passed that the teacher training program at the Jane Brooks School be removed from

probation and reinstated as an approved program.

The committee reviewed and took action on certain individual ap-

plications for certification as follows:

Mary Lou Criss: It was agreed that this applicant should be required to take a methods course at the University of Arizona and would then be eligible for a class A certificate. She had taken part of her work at Gallaudet summer schools, and part at the University of Arizona. Both are approved training programs.

James Cutler: Applicant was granted a class A certificate on basis of a long period of distinguished service which included establishment of a clinic and preschool and working very closely

with residential school programs for deaf children.

Margaret Dudrey: Application for certification was denied on

basis criteria were not met.

Fred Murphy: Application for certification was denied on basis

criteria were not met.

George Propp: Application for class A certificate was granted. Mr. Propp is a deaf man who did not attend Gallaudet College, but has a master's degree in education from Omaha University. His master's thesis is a study of teaching reading to deaf children. As a deaf man he was unable to take a regular program as a teacher of the deaf in a university for hearing people, but he has taken the college work and has the experience that would best prepare him for teaching the deaf.

Kisu Rhee: Application for certification was denied on the

basis that all criteria were not met.

Schunhoff moved, Grace seconded, and it was passed that the Secretary's financial report be accepted. This report showed \$350.73 on

hand at the time of the last report on March 25, 1960; \$1,011.50 received from application fees for a total income of \$1,362.23. Expenses totaled \$849.74, leaving \$512.49 cash on hand as of June 20, 1961.

The meeting was adjourned at 6 p.m.
Respectfully submitted.

RICHARD G. BRILL, Secretary.

Conference membership list

PRESENT

	School	City
Alabama	Alabama School for the Deaf	Talladega.
Arizona	Arizona School for the Deaf.	Tucson,
	Arkansas School for the Deaf	Little Rock,
Arkansas	California School for the Deaf.	Berkeley.
California	Camornia School for the Deal	
	do	Riverside.
	John Tracy Clinic	Los Angeles.
Colorado	Colorado School for the Deaf	Colorado Springs.
Connecticut	American School for the Deaf	West Hartford.
District of Columbia.	Gallaudet College	Washington,
	Kendall School for the Deaf	Washington.
Florida	Florida School for the Deaf	St. Augustine.
Idaho	Idaho School for the Deaf	Gooding.
Illinois	Illincis School for the Deaf	Jacksonville.
Indiana	Indiana School for the Deaf.	Indianapolis.
Kansas	Kansas School for the Deaf	Olathe.
Kansas	Institute of Logopedics	Wichita.
Vontuolen	Kentucky School for the Deaf	Danville,
Kentucky	Tended on Cohool for the Deal	
Louisiana	Louisiana School for the Deaf.	Baton Rouge.
Maryland	Maryland School for the Deaf	Frederick.
Massachusetts	Beverly School for the Deaf	Beverly.
	Perkins School.	Watertown.
Michigan	Michigan School for the Deaf	Flint
Minnesota	Minnesota School for the Deaf	Faribault.
Mississippi	Mississippi School for the Deaf	Jackson.
Missouri	Missouri School for the Deaf	Fulton.
	Gallaudet Day School	St. Louis.
Nebraska	Nebraska School for the Deaf	Omaha.
New Hampshire	Crotched Mountain School	Greenfield.
New Mexico	New Mexico School for the Deaf	Santa Fe.
New York	New York School for the Deaf	White Plains.
New TOIR	Rochester School for the Deaf	Rochester.
		Buffalo.
	St. Mary's School for the Deaf	
North Carolina	North Carolina School for the Deaf	Morganton.
North Dakota	North Dakota School for the Deaf	Devil's Lake.
Ohio	Ohio School for the Deaf.	Columbus.
	Alexander Graham Bell School.	Cleveland.
Oregon	Oregon School for the Deaf	Salem.
	Tucker Maxon Oral School.	Portland,
Pennsylvania	Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf	Edgewood, Pittsburgh.
	Pennsylvania State Oral School	Scranton.
South Dakota	South Dakota School for the Deaf	Sioux Falls.
Tennessee	Tennessee School for the Deaf	Knoxville.
Texas	Texas School for the Deaf	Austin.
10400	Dallas Pilot Institute for the Deaf	Dallas.
Utah	Utah School for the Deaf	Ogden.
	The Austine School	Brattleboro.
Vermont		
Virginia	Virginia School for the Deaf	Staunton.
	Virginia State School	Hampton.
Washington	Washington School for the Deaf	Vancouver.
West Virginia	West Virginia School for the Deaf	Romney.
Wisconsin	Wisconsin School for the Deaf	Delavan.
Canadian schools:		
Ontario	Ontario School for the Deaf	Belleville.
Saskatchewan	Saskatchewan School for the Deaf	Saskatoon.
British Columbia	Jericho Hill School	Vancouver.
Tribini Columbia"	TOLIVOU ANIA COMOVIL	T WAS VOLUMENT TO I .

AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

Conference membership list—Continued

NOT PRESENT

	School	City
Colorado	Evans Day School	Denver.
Connecticut	Mystic Oral School	Mystic.
Georgia	Georgia School for the Deaf	Cave Spring.
Hawaii	Diamond Head School for the Deaf	Honolulu.
Iowa	Iowa School for the Deaf	Council Bluffs.
Kansas	University of Kansas Medical Center	Kansas City.
Louisiana	Chinchuba Institution for the Deaf	Marrero.
Maine	Governor Baxter State School for the Deaf	Portland.
Massachusetts	Boston School for the Deaf	Randolph.
WI assacii uscets	Clarke School for the Deaf	Northampton.
	Horace Mann School for the Deaf	Roxbury.
Michigan	Evangelical-Lutheran Institution for the Deaf	Detroit.
Minnesota	W. Roby Allen School	Faribault.
	Central Institute for the Deaf	St. Louis.
Missouri		
Montana	St. Joseph's Institute for the Deaf	University City. Great Falls.
New Jersey		Newark.
	New Jersey School for the Deaf	
New York		
	Lexington School for the Deaf	New York.
	Mill Neck Manor	Mill Neck.
	Public School No. 47.	New York.
	St. Joseph's School for the Deaf	Do.
	Syracuse University Nursery Class	Syracuse.
North Carolina	Deaf.	Raleigh.
Ohio	Cleveland Hearing and Speech Center	Cleveland.
	St. Rita's School for the Deaf	Cincinnati.
Oklahoma	Jane Brooks Foundation	Chickasha.
	Oklahoma School for the Deaf	Sulphur.
Pennsylvania	DePaul Institute for the Deaf	Pittsburgh.
	Pennsylvania School for the Deaf	Mount Airy, Philadelphia
	Willis and Elizabeth Martin Day School	Philadelphia.
Rhode Island	Rhode Island School for the Deaf	Providence.
South Carolina	South Carolina School for the Deaf	Spartanburg.
Texas	Sunshine Cottage—School for the Deaf	San Antonio.
Canadian schools:	Dullamine Country Comer for the Demission	Cull Tilleollies
Alberta	Alberta School for the Deaf	Edmonton.
Novia Scotia		Halifax.
Quebec	MacKay Institution for Protestant Deaf-Mutes	
Muchel	Mackay monument of Processant Dear Muces	ATTOM OF COM.

CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 33D REGULAR MEETING, SALEM, OREG., JUNE 28, 1961

MEMBERS PRESENT

Edward R. Abernathy, Ohio School. Lloyd A. Ambrosen, Maryland School. E. B. Boatner, American School. Jack W. Brady, West Virginia School. William E. Bragner, Beverly School. Richard G. Brill, California School, Riverside. Marvin B. Clatterbuck, Oregon School. Leonard M. Elstad, Gallaudet College. Virgil W. Epperson, Washington State School. J. Jay Farman, Vermont School. Keith E. Gainey, Alexander Graham Bell School. James H. Galloway, Rochester School. Sister Rose Gertrude, St. Mary's School. John F. Grace, Texas School. W. Lloyd Graunke, Tennessee School. Charles B. Grow, Kentucky School. Hattie Harrell, Tucker Maxon Oral School. Hattle Harrell, Tucker Maxon Oral School.
Lloyd A. Harrison, Missouri School.
Marshall S. Hester, New Mexico School.
Ben E. Hoffmeyer, North Carolina School.
Kenneth F. Huff, Wisconsin School.
Richard F. Krug, Dallas Pilot Institute.
William J. McClure, Indiana School. William E. Miller, Institute of Logopedics. Arthur S. Myklebust, South Dakota School. Helen O'Donnell, Pennsylvania State Oral School. Roy G. Parks. Arkansas School. Frances I. Phillips, Kendall School.
Howard M. Quigley, Minnesota School.
Edward W. Reay, Idaho School.
Stanley D. Roth, Kansas School. Hugo F. Schunhoff, California School, Berkeley. Bruce Siders, Michigan School. Carl F. Smith. North Dakota School. Roy Moore Stelle, Colorado School. Robert W. Tegeder, Utah School. George H. Thompson, Nebraska School. Edward W. Tillinghast, Arizona School. Lewis B. Wahl, Gallaudet Day School, St. Louis. John M. Wallace, Florida School. Edward J. Waterhouse, Perkins School, Department for Deaf-Blind.

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS OFFICIALLY REPRESENTING SCHOOLS

Kendall D. Litchfield, New York School for the Deaf.
D. E. Kennedy, Ontario School for the Deaf.
Arthur Yates, Illinois School for the Deaf.
Paul McLelland, Virginia School for the Deaf, Staunton.
James Little, Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf.
Bill Woodrick, Mississippi School for the Deaf.
Roy K. Patton, Alabama School for the Deaf.
Edward A. Pearson, Virginia State School, Hampton.
Edgar L. Lowell, John Tracy Clinic.

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS

Allen J. Hayek, Idaho School for the Deaf and Blind.
B. J. Peck, Oregon School for the Deaf.
Eldon Shipman, West Virginia School for the Deaf.
Richard Lane, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind.
Doin Hicks, Arkansas School for the Deaf.
James Kirkley, Colorado School for the Deaf.
Ralph S. Hoag, Arizona School for the Deaf.
Lewis Mayers, Oregon School for the Deaf.
Maurice M. White, British Columbia School for the Deaf.
Patrice Costello, Crotched Mountain School for the Deaf.
Lloyd R. Parks, Kansas School for the Deaf.
A. W. Douglas, Texas School for the Deaf.
Tony Christopulos, Utah School for the Deaf.
Lillian Jones, Louisiana School for the Deaf.

HONORARY MEMBERS

Dr. Powrie V. Doctor, Gallaudet College. Dr. E. A. Stevenson (exsuperintendent) California School, Berkeley. John Gough, director, Captioned Film.

VISITORS

Byron Berhow, Washington School for the Blind.
Dr. Howard Roy, Gallaudet College.
Dr. George Detmold, Gallaudet College.
Perl L. Dunn, supervisor, St. Paul, Minn.
Dr. Wayne F. McIntyre, San Fernando Valley State College.
Sister M. Regina, St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N.Y.
Richard Flint, Augustana College.
Frank Frueh, Indiana School for the Deaf.

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APPENDIX

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I. NAME

This organization shall be known as the Conference of the Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Inc.

ARTICLE II. OBJECT

The object of this organization shall be to promote the management and operation of schools for the deaf along the broadest and most efficient lines and to further and promote the general welfare of the deaf.

ARTICLE III. MEMBERS

Section I

Active membership in this organization shall be limited to executive heads of schools for the deaf.

Section II

Associate membership may be granted to principals of schools on recommendation of the executive head of such schools.

Section III

An associate member may participate in the deliberations of the meeting but may not vote unless designated, in writing, to represent his school in the absence of its executive head.

Section IV

Honorary membership may be conferred at any meeting of the organization by a majority vote of the active members present, such membership to continue until terminated by withdrawal or vote of the active members. Honorary members will not be required to pay dues and shall not have the right to vote.

Section V

Active members shall pay dues as prescribed by the bylaws. Only members whose dues are paid shall have the right to vote.

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS

Section

The officers of the conference shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and a treasurer. The officers together with six active elected members shall constitute the executive committee.

Section II

Immediately after the adoption of this constitution there shall be elected by ballot a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and a treasurer each for a term of 3 years. In addition two other active members shall be elected to the executive committee for a term of 3 years to replace those present members whose terms expire in 1948.

Section III

In 1949 two members shall be elected to the executive committee for a term of 3 years to replace those members of the present executive committee whose terms would have expired in 1951. In 1950 two members shall be elected to the executive committee for a term of 3 years to replace those members of the present executive committee whose term would have expired in 1954. Thereafter two members at large shall be elected to the executive committee annually to serve for 3-year terms.

Section IV

The president shall be chairman of the executive committee.

Section I

Officers may not succeed themselves but may be elected to other offices, or to the same office after a lapse of 1 year. In the case of a vacated office, the executive committee shall elect a new officer for the unexpired term.

ARTICLE V. DUTIES OF OFFICERS AND EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Section I

President: The president shall preside at the meetings of the conference and of the executive committee and shall have general care and oversight of the affairs of the conference subject to the approval of the executive committee.

Section II

Vice president: In the absence or disability of the president the vice president shall discharge the duties of president and in the absence or disability of both the executive committee may choose a member to serve as presiding officer.

Section III

Secretary: The secretary shall keep the records of the meetings of the conference and of the executive committee and shall be the custodian of the records and perform such other secretarial duties as may be required by the affairs of the conference.

Section IV

Treasurer: The treasurer shall collect all dues and assessments and shall have custody of the funds and securities of the conference under control of the executive committee. He shall keep proper books and accounts of the receipts and disbursements of the moneys of the conference and the funds and securities of the conference and shall report as to the financial condition of the conference at each annual meeting or as often as requested by the executive committee.

The treasurer shall pay out the money of the conference only in accordance with the regulations or instructions of the executive committee and invest surplus funds subject to the approval of the executive committee.

Section V

The executive committee shall have charge of the affairs of the conference between meetings.

The executive committee shall be governed by such bylaws as are adopted by the conference and shall submit a report of its activities at each annual meeting of the conference.

Section VI

The executive committee shall be charged with the management of the official organ of the conference known as the American Annals of the Deaf and shall elect its editor, who shall also be responsible for the financial affairs of the publication and make an annual report to the treasurer. The editor shall serve for a term of 3 years and may be reelected at the discretion of the executive committee.

Section VII

Meetings of the Executive Committee may be called by the President or upon the request of four members of the committee. Written notice of such meetings shall be given thirty days in advance. Where a quorum of the Committee cannot be obtained a written poll of the members may be substituted.

Section VIII

A quorum of the Executive Committee shall consist of five members of the Committee.

Section IX

All officers and members of the Executive Committee must be active members of the Conference.

ARTICLE VI. MEETINGS

Section I

Regular meetings of the Conference shall be held annually at a time and place designated by the Conference in session or by the Executive Committee. Notice of all meetings must appear in the American Annals of the Deaf at least sixty days in advance of the meetings or sent in writing to each member sixty days in advance of the meeting.

Section II

The program of each meeting shall be prepared by a Program Committee designated by the President and approved by the Executive Committee.

Section III

A quorum shall consist of twenty active members of the Conference.

ARTICLE VII. AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be amended by the affirmative vote of at least threefourths of the active members present at any regularly called meeting, at which at least forty active members are present, provided six months' notice of the meeting with publication of proposed amendment shall appear in the official organ of the Conference.

ARTICLE VIII. BEQUESTS

The Executive Committee is authorized to accept at its discretion gifts and bequests in behalf of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

By-Laws

I. MEMBERSHIP

A. Membership in the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Incorporated, shall be considered that of the school rather than the individual. A school shall be eligible to representation during the period for which dues have been paid.

An Executive automatically relinquishes his Conference membership as repre-

sentative for a school upon the termination of his official duties.

B. At each regular meeting the secretary shall cause to be posted in a conspicuous place, a list bearing the names of all executives qualified as active members in the meeting.

C. To qualify for membership a school must be recommended to the Conference by the Executive Committee and approved by the Conference in regular

meeting.

D. Annual dues shall be such amount as is recommended by the Executive Committee and approved by the Conference.

II. OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES

A. Only members in good standing shall be eligible to election or appointment on Committees or to hold office. Vacancies shall be declared in the event that

an irregularity in this respect shall be noted.

B. Nominations for the various offices shall be made from the floor at the designated period set for the election of officers. In the event of there being more than one nominee, written ballots shall be cast and the member receiving a majority of the votes shall be declared elected. In case no majority is recorded on the first ballot, a second ballot shall be provided on which only the names of the two having the largest number of votes shall appear. In case of a tie vote for first or second place on the ballot, the names of all candidates involved in such tie shall be included. Subsequent ballots are to be governed by similar regulation if necessary.

C. The power of general management of the Conference between meetings, granted to the Executive Committee in the Constitution, shall include the initiation of research and other professional activities in which the welfare of the

deaf is involved.

D. The Secretary of the Conference at each meeting shall prepare a list of eligible associate members and another list of honorary members to be submitted for approval of the Conference at that meeting,

E Committees .

There shall be the following committees:

- 1. Committee on Teacher Training and Certification.
- 2. Committee on Educational Research. 3. Committee on Public Relations.
- 4. Committee on Resolutions.
- 5. Committee on Programs.
- 6. Committee on Legislation.
- 7. Committee on Statistics.

8. Joint Annals Advisory Committee.

Each of the Committees, excepting the Joint Annals Advisory Committee. shall consist of not less than three nor more than five members, and shall be appointed by the President, subject to the approval of the Executive Committee, for a term of three years. The Chairman of each committee shall be designated by the President.

The Joint Annals Advisory Committee shall consist of the President of the Conference, three other members of the Conference designated by the President of the Conference for a three year term, the President of the Convention, and three other members of the Convention designated as the Convention may determine for a matching three-year term. The chairman of this committee shall be designated by the President of the Conference from among the other three members representing the Conference.

III. RECORDING OF MINUTES

The Secretary in conjunction with the editor of the official organ of the Conference shall be responsible for securing minutes of the various sessions and shall arrange for an adequate report of such proceedings to be printed in the above named official organ.

IV. AUDIT

The Executive Committee shall provide for an annual audit of the treasurer's accounts and of the accounts of the Editor of the Annals. Such audits shall be made by certified public accountants.

V. OFFICIAL SEAL

The seal of the organization shall be permanently retained in the offices of the Secretary of the Conference.

VI. PROCEDURE OF MEETING

Robert's Rules of Order shall govern all proceedings not herein provided for.

VII. AMENDMENTS TO BY-LAWS

The By-Laws may be amended by a majority vote at any regular meeting providing the presentation of the change has been approved by the Executive Committee.

VIII. BY-LAWS BECOME EFFECTIVE

These By-Laws shall become effective immediately upon their adoption.

MEETINGS OF THE CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF 1

1868 1st: Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.

1872 2d: Michigan School for the Deaf, Flint, Mich.

3d: Mount Airy School for the Deaf, Philadelphia, Pa. 4th: The Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Mass. 5th: Minnesota School for the Deaf, Faribault, Minn. 1876

1880

1884 6th: Mississippi School for the Deaf, Jackson, Miss. 1888

7th: Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind, Colorado Springs, Colo. 1892

8th: Alabama School for the Deaf, Talladega, Ala. 1900

¹ Special meetings of the conference held before 1948 are not indicated.

1868-1960

1904 9th: Department of International Congresses of the Universal Exposition, Halls of Congresses on the Exposition Grounds, St. Louis, Mo.

10th: Indiana School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Ind. 11th: Ohio School for the Deaf, Columbus, Ohio. 1919

1924 12th: Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind, St. Augustine, Fla.

1926 13th: Maryland School for the Deaf, Frederick, Md. 14th: Tennessee School for the Deaf, Knoxville, Tenn. 1928

15th: Colorado School for the Deaf, Colorado Springs, Colo. 1930

16th: New Jersey School for the Deaf, West Trenton, N.J., International 1933 Congress on the Education of the Deaf. 17th: Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, 1936

Pa.

1939 18th: Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C. 19th: Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf, Edgewood, Pittsburgh, 1944 Pa.

1948 20th: Minnesota School for the Deaf, Faribault, Minn.

1949 21st: Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Ill. 1950

22d: Colorado School for the Deaf, Colorado Springs, Colo.

1951 23d: Missouri School for the Deaf, Fulton, Mo.

24th: Arkansas School for the Deaf, Little Rock, Ark. 1952 1953 25th: Washington School for the Deaf, Vancouver, Wash.

1954 26th: New Mexico School for the Deaf, Santa Fe, N. Mex. 27th: American School for the Deaf, West Hartford, Conn. 1955

28th: Mississippi School for the Deaf, Jackson, Miss. 1956 29th: Tennessee School for the Deaf, Knoxville, Tenn. 1957 1958 30th: Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Mass.

1959 31st: Colorado School for the Deaf, Colorado Springs, Colo.

1960 32d: Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. 33d: Oregon School for the Deaf, Salem, Oreg. 1961

PUBLISHED PROCEEDINGS OF THE CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

1868-1960

1868 Volume I: 1st meeting, 11th Annual Report of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb (Gallaudet College), Washington, D.C.

1872 Volume II: 2d meeting, 10th Biennial Report of the Board of Trustees of the Michigan Institution for the Education of the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, Flint, Mich.

1876 Volume III: 3d meeting, American Annals of the Deaf, No. 4, Mount Airy School for the Deaf, Philadelphia, Pa.

1880 Volume IV: 4th meeting, Steam Press of Gazette Printing Co., Northampton, Mass., Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Mass.

1884 Volume V: 5th meeting, Biennial Report of the Minnesota School for the Deaf, Pioneer Press Co., St. Paul, Minn.

1888 Volume VI: 6th meeting, Clarion-Ledger Printing Establishment, Jackson, Miss., Mississippi School for the Deaf.

1892 Volume VII: 7th meeting, Colorado School Printing Office, Colorado Springs, Colo. Proceedings published in 1893.

Volume VIII: 8th meeting, Alabama Institute for the Deaf Printing Office, 1900 Talladega, Ala.

1904-50 Volumes IX-XXII: 9th to and including the 22d proceedings were published in the American Annals of the Deaf.

1951 Volume XXIII: 23d meeting, Missouri School for the Deaf. The minutes were published in the Proceedings of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

Volume XXIV: 24th meeting, Arkansas School for the Deaf, Little Rock, 1952 Ark. Minutes were mimeographed.

1953 Volume XXV: 25th meeting, Washington School for the Deaf, Vancouver, Wash. Minutes were published in the Proceedings of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. 1954

Volume XXVI: 26th meeting, New Mexico School for the Deaf, Santa Fe, N. Mex. Minutes were mimeographed.

1955 Volume XXVII: 27th meeting, American School for the Deaf, West Hartford, Conn. Minutes were published in the Proceedings of the Convention of the American Instructors of the Deaf.

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- 1956 Volume XXVIII: 28th meeting, Mississippi School for the Deaf, Jackson, Miss. Minutes were mimeographed.
- 1957 Volume XXIX: 29th meeting, Tennessee School for the Deaf, Knoxville, Tenn. Minutes were published in the Proceedings of the Convention of the American Instructors of the Deaf.
- 1958 Volume XXX: 30th meeting, the Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Mass. Minutes were mimeographed.
- 1959 Volume XXXI: 31st meeting, Colorado School for the Deaf, Colorado Springs, Colo. Minutes were published in the Proceedings of the Convention of the American Instructors of the Deaf.
- 1960 Volume XXXII: 32d meeting, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. Minutes were mimeographed.
- 1961 Volume XXXIII: 33d meeting, Oregon School for the Deaf, Salem, Oreg. Minutes were published in the Proceedings of the Convention of the American Instructors of the Deaf.

HONORARY MEMBERS

Retired superintendents:	School from which retired
Dr. Ignatius Bjorlee	Maryland School.
Dr. Alfred L. Brown	Colorado School.
Mrs. Serena Foley Davis	Willis and Elizabeth Martin School.
	Philadelphia.
Dr. Burton W. Driggs	Idaho School.
Mr. Joseph E. Healy	Virginia School, Staunton.
Mr. Clayton H. Hollingsworth	Georgia School.
Mr. J. W. Jackson	Nebraska School.
Dr. Madison J. Lee	Kentucky School.
Miss Harriet F. McLaughlin	Junior High School No. 47, New York City.
Mr. William J. Morrison	Ontario School.
Dr. Ethel A. Poore	Tennessee School.
Dr. Jackson A. Raney	Indiana School.
Dr. Carl E. Rankin	North Carolina School.
Dr. Elwood A. Stevenson	California School (Berkeley).
Others:	(100100)
Dr. Leo G. Doerfler	Eye and Ear Hospital, University of Pittsburg.
Dr. Powrie V. Doctor	Editor, American Annals of the Deaf, Gallaudet College.
Dr. Irving S. Fusfeld	Retired vice president, Gallaudet College.
Mr. John A. Gough	Director, Captioned Films for the Deaf.
Dr. LeRoy D. Hedgecock	Department of otolarynogology and rhinology, Mayo Clinic and Mayo Foundation, Rochester, Minn.
Dr. Helmer Myklebust	Northwestern University.
Mr. Harley Z. Wooden	Executive secretary (ret.) of CEC and
110000000000000000000000000000000000000	former superintendent of the Michigan School for the Deaf.

ABTICLES OF INCORPORATION, THE CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, INCORPORATED

This is to certify:

First: That we, the subscribers, Marshail S. Hester, President, whose post office address is New Mexico School for the Deaf, Santa Fe, New Mexico; William J. McClure, Vice President, whose post office address is Indiana School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Indiana; Hugo F. Schunhoff, Secretary, whose post office address is West Virginia School for the Deaf, Romney, West Virginia; Stanley D. Roth, Treasurer, whose post office address is Kansas School for the Deaf, Olathe, Kansas; Lloyd A. Ambrosen, whose post office address is Maryland

School for the Deaf, Frederick, Maryland, all being of full legal age, do under and by virtue of the General Laws of the State of Maryland authorizing the formation of corporations, associate ourselves with the intention of forming a corporation.

Second: That the name of the corporation (which is hereinafter called the Corporation), is "The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the

Deaf. Incorporated."

Third: The purposes for which the Corporation is formed and the business or objects to be carried on and promoted by it are as follows: (1) To promote the management and operation of schools for the deaf

along the broadest and most efficient lines and,

(2) To further and promote the welfare of the deaf and.

(3) To promote the professional growth of teachers of the deaf, and to establish and maintain minimum standards for teachers through certification procedures and approval of teacher training centers.

Fourth: That the said Corporation shall have the power to take and hold personal estate and such real estate as shall be necessary and proper for the promotion of the educational and benevolent purposes of said Corporation.

Fifth: The post office address of the place at which the principal office of the Corporation in this State will be located is 306 South Market Street, Frederick, Maryland. The resident agent of the Corporation is Lloyd A. Ambrosen, whose post office address is 306 South Market Street, Frederick, Maryland, said resident agent is a citizen of the State of Maryland and actually resides therein.

Sixth: The members of the Corporation shall be limited to executives of schools for the deaf in the United States and Canada or to such other persons associated with the education of the deaf, as shall be eligible in accordance with such regulations of the Constitution and By-Laws as may be adopted under the direction of the officers and directors hereof. The Corporation shall have no

capital stock.

Seventh: The Corporation shall have a president, a vice president, a secretary, a treasurer, and six other members of the Conference. These members, William J. McClure, Hugo F. Schunhoff, Stanley D. Roth, Roy M. Stelle, Colorado School for the Deaf, Colorado Springs, Colorado; Ben E. Hoffmeyer, North Carolina School for the Deaf, Morganton, North Carolina; Archie F. Leard, Saskatchewan School for the Deaf, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada; Carl F. Smith, North Dakota School for the Deaf, Devils Lake, North Dakota; Edmund B. Boatner, American School for the Deaf, Hartford, Connecticut and Thomas K. Kline, Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Illinois, together with the President, Marshall S. Hester, ex-officio, shall act as the Executive Committee until the first annual meeting of the Corporation, or until their successors are duly elected and qualified. The following additional individuals shall serve as members of the Corporation, Elwood A. Stevenson, California School for the Deaf, Berkeley, California; Daniel T. Cloud, New York School for the Deaf, White Plains, New York; and Madison J. Lee, Kentucky School for the Deaf, Danville, Kentucky.

In witness whereof, we have signed this Certificate of Incorporation.

MARSHALL S. HESTER. WILLIAM J. MCCLURE. HUGO F. SCHUNHOFF. STANLEY D. ROTH. LLOYD A. AMBROSEN.

STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA, County of Allegheny, ss:

I hereby certify that on the 24th day of June, 1958, before me, the subscriber, a notary public of the State of Pennsylvania, in and for the County of Allegheny, personally appeared Marshall S. Hester, Santa Fe, New Mexico; William J. McClure, Indianapolis, Indiana; Hugo F. Schunhoff, Romney, West Virginia; and severally acknowledged the aforegoing Certificate of Incorporation to be their respective act and deed.

Witness my hand and notarial seal the day and year last above written.

[SEAL]

MADGE HAY. Notary Public.

My commission expires June 25, 1961.

STATE OF MARYLAND, County of Frederick, ss:

I hereby certify, that on the 20th day of June, 1958, before me, the subscriber, a notary public of the State of Maryland, in and for the County of Frederick, personally appeared Lloyd A. Ambrosen, and did acknowledge the foregoing Certificate of Incorporation to be his act and deed.

Witness my hand and notarial seal, the day and year last above written.

[SEAL]

HAZEL K. McCANNER, Notary Public.

STATE OF KANSAS, County of Johnson, 88:

I hereby certify that on the 5th day of July, 1958, before me, the subscriber, a notary public of the State of Kansas, in and for the County of Johnson, personally appeared Stanley D. Roth, and did acknowledge the foregoing Certificate of Incorporation to be his act and deed.

Witness my hand and notarial seal, the day and year last above written.

SEAL

LEONARD W. CULLISON,
Notary Public.

My commission expires February 5, 1961.

THE CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF,
INCORPORATED

ARTICLES OF AMENDMENT

The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Incorporated, a Maryland Corporation, having its principal office in Frederick County, Maryland, (hereinafter called the Corporation), hereby certifies to the State Tax Commission of Maryland, that:

First: The charter of the Corporation is hereby amended by adding an additional paragraph to the Articles of Corporation to be known as 6(a) to follow

immediately after paragraph six, and to read as follows:

6(a). In the event that the Corporation is dissolved, all of the assets of the Corporation after payment of all obligations, shall be deposited with the office of the President of Gallaudet College, Washington 2, D.C., to be used for such educational or scientific purposes as deemed proper by the Executive Committee of the Corporation, and none of the assets of the Corporation for his or its personal use.

Second: The amendment of the charter of the Corporation as hereinabove set forth has been duly advised by the Executive Committee and approved by the

members of the Corporation.

Third: The members of the Corporation, at a meeting duly convened and held on October 10, 1958, at Northampton, Massachusetts, adopted a resolution in which was set forth the foregoing amendment to the charter, declaring that said amendment of the charter was advisable and directing that necessary action be taken at the next meeting of the Executive Committee of the Corporation.

Fourth: Notice setting forth the said amendment of the charter and stating that a purpose of the meeting of the members would be to take action thereon,

was given as required by law, to all members entitled to vote.

Fifth: The amendment of the charter of the Corporation as hereinabove set forth was approved by the members of the Corporation at said meeting by the affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members entitled to vote thereon.

In witness whereof, the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf has caused these presents to be signed in its name and on its behalf by its President and its corporate seal hereunto affixed and attested by its Secretary on January 29, 1959.

THE CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, INCORPORATED,

By Marshall S. Hester, President.

Attest:

Hugo F. Schunhoff, Secretary.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, City of Washington, 88:

X

w f 16 d m n et ne ld in id be ng n, et he he its ry I hereby certify that on January 29, 1959, before me, the subscriber, a notary public of the District of Columbia in and for the City of Washington, personally appeared Marshall S. Hester, President of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Incorporated, a Maryland corporation, and in the name and on behalf of said corporation acknowledged the foregoing Articles of Amendment to be the corporate act of said corporation; and at the same time personally appeared Hugo F. Schunhoff and made oath in due form of law that he was secretary of the meeting of the members of said corporation at which the amendment of the charter of the corporation therein set forth was approved, and that the matters and facts set forth in said Articles of Amendment are true to the best of his knowledge, information and belief.

Witness my hand and notarial seal, the day and year last above written.

LLOYD H. JOHNSON, Notary Public, District of Columbia.

STATE TAX COMMISSION OF MARYLAND:

This is to certify that the within instrument is a true copy of the Articles of Amendment of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Incorporated, as approved and received for record by the State Tax Commission of Maryland, February 3, 1959 at 9:00 o'clock a.m.

As witness my hand and official seal of the said Commission at Baltimore this 10th day of February, 1959.

Albert W. Ward, Secretary.

INDEX

A	Page
Accelerated child, the, Edward L. Scouten	328 IX
Act of incorporationAddress of welcome, Marvin Clatterbuck	1
Appling, Howell, Jr., greetings from the State of Oregon	2
Are we short changing our deaf children? Leon Auerbach	303
Auditory training, section on	53
Clarification of concepts, Jacqueline Keaster	53
Workshop I, learning experiences and auditory training, leader,	~0
Bessie Pugh. Workshop II, principles and development of auditory training programs, leader, Paul Bird.	58 61
Workshop III, research in auditory testing, leader, Fred Berg	62
Auerbach, Leon, are we short changing our deaf children?	303
В	
Basketball fundamentals, necessary, Peter Wisher	264
Bennett, Frank B., the second mile	10
Bennett, Frank B., the second mile	176
Bonesteele, Russell F., greetings from the city of Salem	2
Bothwell, Hazel, Illinois preschool programs	240
Brain-injured child, the, Ann M. Mulholland	74
Brill, Richard G., president's report	3
C	
Captioned films for the deaf, John A. Gough	211
Cerebral-palsied deaf child, the, William E. Miller	80
Civilian defense	89
Briefing on the NEAR system, Robert E. Knieriem	98
National civil emergency preparedness, Eugene J. Sleevi	90
Opening remarks, Paul C. Howard	89 213
Clatterbuck, Marvin B:	410
Address of welcome	1
Oregon's program for the deaf child before he enters school	251
Communication output of deaf children, Patricia Stafford	315
Comparison of the performance of day students and residential students	
in residential schools for the deaf, D. Robert Frisina	149
Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, 33d meeting	339 378
Business session.	340
Accident insurance	344
American Annals, report and related information 343, 348, 349, 360,	361
Council on Education of the Deaf	351
Committee reports	342
Annals advisory	358
Captioned films Educational research	343 342
Executive committee:	342
April 7, 1960	346
January 26, 1961	352
June 27, 1961	348
Legislation	342
Parent education	342
Public relations	342
Resolutions 242 262	345
Teacher training and certification 343, 363,	900

Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf—Continued Business session—Continued	Page
Council of National Organizations	350
Constitution	373
Election of officers	344
Gallaudet College report	345
Honorary members 34	
Meetings of the conference	376
Membership lists	368
New members	$\frac{341}{377}$
Proceedings of conference meetings	341
Proxies, approval of Thomas K. Kline, tribute to	340
Transurar's report	357
Treasurer's reportConvention of American Instructors of the Deaf :	001
Act of incorporation	IZ
Business meeting	277
Constitution of the	XLI
List of presidents	X
Meetings of the	X
Members of the	XV
Officers	XIII
Report of committees:	
Auditing	281
Dues study	282
Executive	291
Houseparents	285 289
NominatingResolutions	286
Treasurer's report	279
Council on education of the deaf, meeting of	207
Council on Education of the dear, incering of	201
D	
D'Arc, Sister Jeanne, language	17
Davis, Carl J., the deaf-blind child—diagnosis and evaluation	69
Deaf-blind child, the—diagnosis and evaluation, Carl J. Davis	69
Development of esoteric communication and the early start of language	-
teaching, the Bernard Th. Tervoort, S.J.	165
Diagnosis and evaluation—the deaf-blind child, Carl J. Davis	69
Dial, Helen, middle school language	39
Direct English learning in the upper school, Robert F. Panara	32
E	
Education of the deaf, council on	207
Emotionally disturbed deaf, setting our sights for the, Sue Allen Warren	71
English learning in the upper school, Robert F. Panara	32
\mathbf{F}	
Falberg, Roger, Wichita civil defense program for the deaf	213
Fay (Edward Allen) award to Dr. George M. McClure, Sr., presentation	-10
of, William J. McClure	102
Foreword	VII
Frisina, D. Robert, comparison of day students and residential students	
in residential schools for the deaf	149
Furth, Hans G., a psychologist's view on the slow-learning deaf child	188
G	
Gaeth, John H., verbal learning among children with reduced hearing acuity	144
George M. McClure, Dr., a tribute to, W. T. Griffing	109
Gilbert, L. C., reading-learning and the learner	114
Gough John A. cantioned films for the deaf	211
Gough, John A., captioned films for the deaf————————————————————————————————————	2
Greetings from the State of Oregon, Howell Appling, Jr., secretary	2
of stateGriffing, W. T., a tribute to Dr. George M. McClure, Sr.	109

H

Hamel, Clara A., services in New York State for the deaf preschool	Page
	247
child and his parents	
Health and physical education, section on	261
Less spectators—more participants, Donald A. Padden	26 2
Necessary basketball fundamentals, Peter Wisher	264
Workshop—girls' physical education, leader, Nita Hiett	270
Workshop I, track, leader, David Fraley Workshop IV, football, leader, Harvey Haynes	271
Workshop IV football leader Harvey Havnes	273
Hearing loss, use of computers in measuring, Edgar L. Lowell	134
	184
Homemaking education for the sixties, Bertha Kohlhagen	
History of the LPF, the, George M. McClure, Sr	103
_	
I	
Illinois preschool programs, Hazel Bothwell	240
Interpreters	XIII.
K	
Keaster, Jacqueline, auditory training clarification of concepts	53
Knieriem, Robert E., briefing on the NEAR system	98
Kohlhagen, Bertha, homemaking education for the sixties	184
Konmagen, Dertha, homemaking education for the sixties	101
*	
\mathbf{L}	
Language, lower school demonstration, Mrs. Katherine Miner	44
Language, middle school, Helen Dial	39
Language, setcion on	17
Workshops, Monday, June 26:	
Workshop I, upper school language, leader, Mrs. Harriett Gough_	44
Workshop II. upper school language, leader, Maurice Moriarity	45
Workshop II, upper school language, leader, Maurice Moriarity- Workshop III, upper school language, leader, Mrs. Ruth Wiggin-	45
Workshop IV, middle school language, leader, Harold Ratai	46
	47
Workshop V, middle school language, leader, Mrs. Joyce Murphy	
workshop vi, middle school language, leader, Alyce Thomas	48
Workshop VI, middle school language, leader, Alyce Thomas Workshop VII, lower school language, leader, Mrs. Eloise	
Kennedy	50
Workshop VIII, lower school language, leader, Mrs. Gladys	
Waldori	52
Leshin, George J., the slow-learning deaf child	197
Less spectators-more participants, Donald A. Padden-	262
Letter of submittal	VI
Letter of transmittal	V
Letter of transmittalLittle paper family, the history of, George M. McClure, Sr	103
Little paper family, the instory of, George M. McCitre, St.	101
Little paper family dinner	
History of the LPF, the, George M. McClure, Sr	103
Presentation of E. A. Fay award to Dr. G. M. McClure, Sr	102
Tribute to Dr. G. M. McClure, Sr., a	109
Look at the scope of social studies, a, Betty Phillips	298
Lowell, Edgar L.:	
A point of view regarding the multiple-handicapped deaf	64
Use of computers in measuring hearing loss	134
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
M	
Mathematics, section on	303
Mathematics, Section on	
Are we short changing our deaf children? Leon Auerbach	303
Workshops, Thursday, June 29:	
Workshop I, upper primary, leader, Claude Gulbranson	309
Workshop II, intermediate, leader, Barry Griffing	309
Workshop III. advanced, leader, David Mudgett	310
Workshop IV, slow learners, leader, Keith Lange	312
Workshop V, algebra, leader, Thomas Ulmer	313
McClure, William J.:	010
Foreword	VII
Presentation of E. A. Fay award to Dr. G. M. McClure, Sr	102
Tresentation of E. A. Fay award to Dr. G. M. McClure, Sf.	102

	Page
McConnell, Freeman, Tennessee's program for preschool deaf children	253
Meetings of the convention, dates and places	148
Middle school language, Helen Dial	39
Miller, William E., the cerebral-palsied deaf child.	80
Mulholland, Ann M., the multiple-handicapped child, the brain-injured	
child	74
Multiple-handicapped child, the, brain-injured child, Ann M. Mulholland Multiple-handicapped deaf, a point of view regarding the, Edgar L. Lowell	74 64
Multiple handicaps, section on 69 Psychologist's view on the slow-learning deaf child, a, Hans G.	3, 188
Furth	188
Slow-learning deaf child, the, George J. Leshin Workshops, Monday, June 26: Workshop, deaf-blind summary	197
Workshop, emotionally disturbed deaf, leader, Sue Warren	87
Workshop, brain-injured and aphasic deaf—cerebral palsied and deaf, leader, Ann Mulholland	87
Workshops, Tuesday, June 27:	
Workshop I, slow-learning deaf child, the, evaluation and re-	
search, leader, George Leshin	202
Workshop II, curriculum for the slow-learning deaf child, leader, Mrs. Eloise Kennedy	203
Workshop II, counseling and vocational planning, leader, W.	200
Lloyd Graunke	206
N	
National civil emergency preparedness, Eugene J. Sleevi	89
National Science Foundation programs in science education, Stanley E.	00
Williamson	235
NEAR system, briefing on, Robert E. Knieriem Necessary basketball fundamentals, Peter Wisher	$\frac{98}{264}$
0	
Oregon's program for the deaf child before he enters school, Marvin Clatterbuck	251
P	
P	
Padden, Donald A., less spectators—more participants	262
Panara, Robert F., direct English learning in the upper school	32
Phillips, Betty, a look at the scope of social studies Plight of the deaf preschooler in New Mexico, the, Ray Valencia	298 244
Point of view regarding the multiple-handicapped deaf, a, Edgar Lowell.	64
Preschool and kindergarten, section on	239
Illinois' preschool programs, Hazel Bothwell	240
Oregon's program for the deaf child before he enters school, Marvin Clatterbuck	251
Plight of the deaf preschooler in New Mexico, the, Ray Valencia Services in New York State for the preschool child and his parents,	244
Clara A. Hamel	247
Tennessee's program for preschool deaf children, Freeman McConnell_ Workshops, Wednesday, June 28:	253
Workshop I, discussion of child enrolling at age 5 years, leader,	257
Sister Marianna Workshop II, preschool and kindergarten, leader, Mrs. Gladys	200
Waldorf	259
Workshop III, meeting the needs of the preschool child and his	250
parents, leader, Mrs. Genevieve Tucker	259
Workshop IV, those who enter at 3 years or younger, Leader, Rosemary Burke	260

INDEX	387
2212/2015	00.

	Page
Presentation of Edward Allen Fay Award to Dr. G. M. McClure, Sr	102
President's report, Richard G. Brill	3
Principals and supervising teachers, section for	327
Accelerated child, the, Edward L. Scouten	328
Workshops, Thursday, June 29:	
Workshop I, pupil evaluation, leader, Richard Lane	336
Workshop II, teacher evaluation, leader, Frances Phillips	337
Workshop III, the accelerated child, leader, Armin Turechek	338
Psychologist's view on the slow-learning deaf child, a, Hans G. Furth	188
R	
Reading-learning and the learner, L.C. Gilbert	114
Reading research workshop	130
Reading, section on:	
Reading-learning and the learner, L. C. Gilbert	114
Reading research workshop	130
Workshops, Tuesday, June 27	111
Workshop I, initial development of word attack skills, etc.,	100
leader, Naomi Nortz	120
Workshop II, effecting reading comprehension and interpretation, leader, Mrs. Katherine Miner	120
Workshop III, reading readiness, leader, Juliett McDermott	120
Workshop IV, progressive development of word attack skills,	
leader, Carl Gastman	121
Workshop V, reading comprehension or interpretation, leader,	
Mrs. Rosemary Burke	121
Workshop VI, processes in building effective habits and appre-	
ciation (ages 8-14), leaders, Evelyn Shellgrain and Justin	
Dozier	122
Workshop VII, further development of word attack skills, leader,	123
Mrs. Kathryn Williamson Workshop VIII, effecting reading comprehension and flexibility,	123
leader, Alyce Thomas	124
Workshop IX, methods and procedures in expanding word attack	1-1
skills (ages 15-20), leader, Mervin Garretson	125
Workshop X, means of effecting reading comprehension and	
flexibility, leader, William Blea	126
Workshop XI, building effective habits and development of appre-	
ciation, leader, Kenneth Lane	127
Workshop XII, development of special skills (intermediate and	
advanced), leader, Mrs. Edythe Montgomery	127
Workshop XIII, visual aids, captioned films, leader, Malcolm Norwood	128
Workshop XIV, the role of reading in developing expressive	120
language, leader, Ann M. Mulholland	130
Workshop XV, reading for the slow learner, leader, Mrs. Berna-	200
dette Attleweed	131
Recent developments and trends in trade and industrial education, G. R.	
Bloomquist	176
Research, section on	133
Comparison of the performance of day students and residential stu-	- 1-
dents in residential schools for the deaf, D. Robert Frisina	149
Development of esoteric communication and the early start of lan-	400
guage teaching, the, Bernard Th. Tervoort, S.J.	165
Role of nonverbal symbols in the education of the deaf, the, Marie	148
MeierUse of computers in measuring hearing loss, Edgar L. Lowell	134
Verbal learning among children with reduced hearing acuity, John H.	104
Gaeth	144
Rethinking science education, Donald Stotler	225
Role of nonverbal symbols in the education of the deaf, the Marie Mejer	148

INDEX

S
Science, section on
National Science Foundation programs in science education, Stan-
ley E. Williamson
Rethinking science education, Donald Stotler Workshop reports (combined)
Scouten, Edward L., the accelerated child.
Second mile, the, Frank B. Bennett
Section leaders.
Section meetings:
Auditory training
Health and physical education
Language
Mathematics
Multiple handicaps 6
Preschool and kindergarten
Principals and supervising teachers
Reading
Research
Science
Social studies21
Speech
Visual education
Vocational education171, 274
Senate Concurrent Resolution 40
Services in New York State for the deaf preschool child and his parents,
Clara Hamel
Setting our sights for the emotionally disturbed deaf, Sue Warren
Sleevi, Eugene J., national civil emergency preparedness
Slow-learning deaf child, the, a psychologist's view on, Hans G. Furth-Slow-learning deaf child, the, George J. Leshin
Social studies, section on
Look at the scope of social studies, a, Betty Phillips
Value of current events in a social studies program, the, Jack M.
Staehle
Workshops, Wednesday, June 28:
Workshop I, intermediate level, leaders, Betty Phillips and
Margaret Atwood
Workshop II, advanced level, leader, James Hoxie
Workshop III, advanced level, leader, Virginia Heidinger
Workshops, Thursday, June 29:
Workshop I, intermediate level, leader, Betty Phillips
Workshop II, advanced level, leader, Elliott Igleheart
Speech, section on
Communication output of deaf children, Patricia Stafford
Workshops, Thursday, June 29:
Workshop I, lower school, leader, E. Aleen Hunt
Workshop II, middle school, leader, Mrs. C. Schloeman
Workship III, application of the McGinnis-CID Association
method, leader, Mrs. Jo Deeter Watts
Workshop IV, speech in the upper grades, leader, Wallace Bruce_
Staehle, Jack M., the value of current events in a social studies program
Stafford, Patricia, communication output of deaf children
Stotler, Donald, rethinking science education
T
Tennessee's program for preschool deaf children, Freeman McConnell
Tervoort, Bernard Th., S.J., the development of esoteric communication
and the early start of language teaching
Trade and industrial education, recent developments and trends in, G. R.
Bloomquist.
Tribute to Dr. G. M. McClure, Sr., a. W. T. Griffing
Tribute to Dr. G. M. McClure, Sr., a, W. T. Griffing Upper school, English learning in the, Robert F. Panara
Use of computers in measuring hearing loss, Edgar L. Lowell

INDEX 389

V

Valencia, Ray, the plight of the deaf preschooler in New Mexico
Gaeth
Visual education, section on: Captioned films for the deaf, leader, John A.
Gough
Vocational education, section on 171, 274
Business meeting
Homemaking education for the sixties, Bertha Kohlhagen
Recent developments and trends in trade and industrial education, G. R. Bloomquist
When do we begin? Boyce R. Williams
Workshops, Tuesday, June 27:
Workshop I, administration and supervision, leader, Howard H. Rahmlow
Workshop II, vocational curricula instruction, leader, John Fessant
Workshop III, vocational rehabilitation and guidance, etc., leader, Roy K. Patton
Workshop IV, demonstration and luncheon, leader, Mrs. Connie Black
Workshops, Wednesday, June 28:
Workshop I, homemaking, leader, Mrs. Wanita Davies
Workshop II, homemaking symposium, leader, Lenora Hudson
Workshops, Thursday, June 29:
Workshop I, curricula and instruction, leader, John M. Fessant
Workshop II, homemaking, Mrs. Clarice Goldsmith.
Workshop III, offset lithography, leader, Thomas Fishler
W
Warren, Sue Allen, setting our sights for the emotionally disturbed deaf
When do we begin? Boyce R. Williams
Wichita civil defense program for the deaf, Roger Falberg
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Williamson, Stanley E., National Science Foundation programs in science education
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